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Volume 60, Number 2, February 1971

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This month's cover

The symbols on the cover refer to "The Language of Prejudice," by Stephen Steinberg (page 14). As the author points out, sticks and stones *can* break bones and names *can* and *do* hurt, when they reflect the hostility in men's hearts.

NEW HAMPSHIRE EDITION

As a new unification service, members of New Hampshire's unified local, state, and national education associations will receive each month during this school year copies of a special New Hampshire edition of TODAY'S EDUCATION. This edition, produced in cooperation with the New Hampshire Education Association staff, replaces the magazine editions of the *New Hampshire Educator*, formerly sent to state association members. (See pages 73-76.)

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Published monthly except June, July, and August by the National Education Association of the United States, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Telephone: Area Code 202, 833-4000. TODAY'S EDUCATION® goes to all members of the Association. Annual subscription price $1.05 (included in membership dues and available only as a part of membership). Single copies 80¢ each. Second-class postage paid at Washington, DC, and at additional mailing offices. Articles are the expressions of the writers and not statements of NEA policy unless set by resolution. Although advertising is screened, acceptance of the advertisement does not imply NEA endorsement of the product or of the views expressed. TODAY'S EDUCATION is a member of the Educational Press Association and the Magazine Publishers Association. It is indexed in *Education Index* and *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*. Copyright © 1971 by the National Education Association of the United States. All rights reserved.

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White House Conference Produces "Concerns" and Unofficial Actions

NEA Committee Cautions Affiliates on Performance Contracts

Program To Retrain Displaced Black Educators Draws NEA Fire

Court Rules California Teacher Loyalty Oath Unconstitutional

NEWS AND TRENDS

White House Conference Produces "Concerns" and Unofficial Actions

Some 3,700 delegates to the White House Conference on Children, meeting in December, developed a list of "overriding concerns." The stated concerns of the delegates included (a) a reordering of national priorities beginning with a guaranteed basic family income adequate for the needs of children; (b) programs to eliminate racism; (c) comprehensive family-oriented child development programs, including health services, day care, and early childhood education; (d) health, welfare, educational, and bilingual-bicultural growth of *all* children; (e) a federally financed national child health care program; (f) a system of early identification of children with special needs; (g) immediate, massive funding for the development of alternative, optional forms of public education; and (h) creation of a Cabinet post concerned with children and youth.

The Council of National Organizations for Children and Youth (of which NEA is a constituent member) urged that the Conference include a plenary session to identify priorities. That request was denied, but some 1,200 delegates held an unofficial session at which they adopted resolutions. These resolutions called for, among other things, $360 million for Head Start programs, support for a child development act, establishment of a guaranteed minimum income, feeding 10 million poor people, ending the war in Indochina, and banning the supersonic transport. A resolution passed at the unofficial session also urged that the White House Conference on Youth, planned for late March in Estes Park, Colorado, be rescheduled in Washington, D.C.

NEA Committee Cautions Affiliates on Performance Contracts

The NEA Executive Committee has adopted a position statement cautioning NEA affiliates "not to become parties to a performance contract without careful prior planning and consultation." The statement notes that contracts presently in effect are subject to "potentially serious abuses."

NEA affiliates are urged not to sign a performance contract until certain conditions are met. They include the following stipulations: Teachers are involved in every phase of the contract from planning to evaluation; pupils will be under the supervision of professionally trained and certificated personnel; programs will be limited to "genuinely innovative approaches that are neither likely nor possible within the school's program"; and contracts are not in conflict with negotiated agreements between school boards and local associations and do not violate the established legal rights of teachers.

Further, the NEA Committee urged individual teachers and local associations considering entering a performance contract to "proceed with caution only after answering the following questions: What are the present state laws with respect to performance contracting? What threats does performance contracting pose to teacher tenure? Is performance contracting an approach to merit pay? Does the performance contract under consideration contain the necessary safeguards so that children will not be harmed? Does the performance contract under consideration impinge upon the negotiation rights of teachers? From whom do the teachers take orders under the performance contract? What is being served by the performance contract—the interests of private industry, political interests, welfare interests, or the interests of the children?"

Program To Retrain Displaced Black Educators Draws NEA Fire

An estimated $3.2 million federal program to retrain black educators displaced during school desegregation was announced by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in December. The program drew immediate fire from NEA, which labeled it an attempt to "treat the symptoms of racial prejudice" and not the real problems.

NEA President Helen Bain said the money could better be used to develop meaningful programs in human relations. She complimented the government for "at last" recognizing the grave problem of displaced black educators—a problem NEA has highlighted several times—but added that she seriously questions "whether any so-called retraining program, however well motivated, is meaningful" in light of the Nixon Administration's failure to challenge the legality of wholesale firing and demotion of black teachers in the South.

Court Rules California Teacher Loyalty Oath Unconstitutional

A California law requiring teachers to swear to "promote respect for

Panel Recommends College Boards Expand To Test Noncollege-Bound

Commission Urges Basic Overhaul of Medical and Dental Education

Reading Council Wants To Involve 10 Million in Tutoring Programs

Courts Requiring Due Process When Students Face Expulsion

Students Continue To Smoke, Study in Illinois Reveals

Names in the News

NEA Reporter Gives Association News

the flag and . . . for law and order" was ruled unconstitutional by the U.S. Supreme Court in December. The Court affirmed a lower court finding that the oath was vague and similar to a Washington state requirement thrown out in 1964.

Panel Recommends College Boards Expand To Test Noncollege-Bound

A 21-member Commission on Tests has suggested that the College Entrance Examination Board consider developing tests for noncollege-bound students.

Sidney P. Marland, Jr., a panel member (now U.S. Commissioner of Education), said in a paper prepared for the Commission that testing competence for job entry is "at best unorganized, and at worst nonexistent." Marland also said that "a very large proportion of young people are excluded from the select society that the Board has unintentionally constructed."

The Commission also suggested that CEEB broaden its tests for the college-bound so as to measure a greater variety of skills among these students.

Commission Urges Basic Overhaul of Medical and Dental Education

The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education has called for a basic overhaul of medical and dental training in the United States, and for greatly expanded federal aid to medical and dental schools.

The Commission recommended a 50 percent increase in the number of medical school entrants, a 20 percent increase in dental school entrants, and expansion of training of health service aides.

The Commission also proposed that the length of training be shortened from eight to six years for physicians and from four to three years for dentists. It urged that more women and minority group members be admitted to training.

Reading Council Wants To Involve 10 Million in Tutoring Programs

The National Reading Council said recently that by the end of the 1970's it hopes to involve 10 million parents and others in tutoring the nation's illiterates, "since there are millions of elementary school pupils, as well as a portion of our adult population, in urgent need of reading remediation."

The Council plans to develop training materials to help the tutors and to provide programs for communities willing to participate.

Courts Requiring Due Process When Students Face Expulsion

Most state laws on expelling students from public schools are quite vague, but courts are insisting that students cannot be expelled without receiving due process of law.

This is the conclusion of Stephen J. Voelz, professor at Loras College, Dubuque, Iowa, who surveyed the laws of the 50 states on suspension and expulsion and the views of state attorney generals and departments of education.

Voelz concludes that public school attendance now has the status of a right rather than a privilege and that states should eliminate the existing confusion by adopting clear-cut statutes which include the procedures already confirmed by the courts. He says that the courts are requiring that students be given notice of expulsion or of long-term suspension and some opportunity for a hearing.

Voelz recommends that school boards adopt step-by-step policies in the absence of clear state statutes, including representation by counsel, a hearing, cross-examination of witnesses, and the right of appeal. He suggests that school boards in large districts consider hiring an adult ombudsman with some legal training as the spokesman for accused pupils.

Students Continue To Smoke, Study in Illinois Reveals

The rate of smoking among students is not dropping off as it is among adults.

Girls are smoking in greater numbers and are starting earlier; boys still smoke at a higher rate, but the gap seems to be narrowing; the rate of smoking for students who subsequently dropped out of school was unusually high. These are findings of a three-year University of Illinois study of nearly 24,000 Illinois students.

Names in the News

Sidney P. Marland, Jr., was confirmed by the Senate in December as U.S. Commissioner of Education. He had been nominated in September by President Nixon to replace James E. Allen, Jr. NEA supported Dr. Marland's confirmation; organized labor, including the American Federation of Teachers, opposed the nomination.

Former Commissioner Allen has been named to head Princeton University's new Exploratory Program in Education and Public Affairs.

NEA Reporter Gives Association News

For news and trends in local, state, and national education associations, see current issues of the *NEA Reporter*, sent to every NEA member.

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This feature is an open forum for TODAY'S EDUCATION *readers. Ideas and opinions expressed here are those of the writer and not necessarily of the NEA. (When writing, please indicate school, position, and home address.)*

Statement on Pesticides

On page 26 of TODAY'S EDUCATION for December 1970 (Special Feature on Pollution), there is a statement [reprinted from *Look* magazine] that begins with the following sentences:

"Pesticides, in general, are *designed* to fail. The industry profits by this because when they do fail, their recommendation is to use *more* pesticides. . . ."

The first of these sentences is totally false, and it is used as a lead to introduce another falsehood which is slanted in a manner that implies malicious intent.

Pesticides are designed to kill pests. If they fail to do so, people don't eat. The Irish potato famine in the last century resulted in one million deaths, because no pesticides were available to kill potato blight. This plant disease is still around, and it would destroy the potato and tomato crops if not for pesticides.

Pesticides are designed to *succeed* in the job of killing pests. If they are ineffective, the farmer will not buy or use them. The U.S. Department of Agriculture does not register pesticides unless they are effective, and their sale is not allowed unless they are safe under conditions permitted for their use.

Information on pesticides may be obtained from your farm adviser, from the department of agriculture in your state, from the USDA, and from the National Agricultural Chemicals Association.

—Thomas Jukes, *professor of medical physics, University of California, Berkeley.*

Comment on Teacher Strikes

As a long-time life member of NEA, may I have the courtesy of your space to express my keen disappointment with the sad news on page 3 of the November issue ("News and Trends") that there were 180 teacher strikes in 1969-70. Presumably all of them were in violation of state law and some of them were in violation of court injunctions and valid contracts.

No one should shut off a government service paid for out of taxes on the public, least of all government employees. The shutting down of government operations is the road to anarchy and is an attack on democracy—government by and for the people.

—Hugh Nixon, *retired life member of NEA, Melrose, Massachusetts.*

• *Among teachers and teacher organizations, the 1960's will be known as a decade of change. Concepts that had remained virtually unchallenged for years were reexamined in light of changing conditions and in many instances substantially modified or totally discarded. Nowhere has this been more evident than in regard to teacher strikes.* [*See page 27 of this issue.*]

While this activity was almost universally condemned by teachers only a few years ago, most have now come to realize that under certain circumstances a strike may be the only effective means for bringing about necessary changes in teacher welfare and/or the educational process. This philosophy is reflected in NEA Resolution C-48, which provides in part as follows:

"The Association realizes that teachers may have no choice but to resort to a withdrawal of services as the only means of attracting public attention to, and correcting conditions in, situations (a) where conditions make it impossible for teachers to provide quality education, (b) where solutions have been proposed but have not been conscientiously explored, and (c) where solutions have been proposed but not consummated."

While the foregoing Resolution accurately reflects the position of the overwhelming majority of NEA members, it has by no means received unanimous acceptance. There are NEA members—Hugh Nixon among them—who believe that teacher strikes, regardless of the circumstances or impact, cannot and should not be condoned.

Teachers Shouldn't Tattle

What a heartless, wicked, brainless thing to do. I am referring to the Classroom Incident (November) in which an English teacher tattled about a physics teacher to the principal and probably prevented the physics teacher from getting another contract. This English teacher (?) is the worst kind of busybody and he can be thankful I was not the principal, for I would have then scrutinized his work very carefully. Anyone who reacted the way he did must have other flaws in his personality and perhaps in his teaching.

Once a few years ago, I was a new teacher and was castigated by a number of older teachers. There was only one teacher—not the principal—who gave me any useful help, advice, or even kindness. I survived and I still thank that one teacher who did not blame or tattle, but helped me learn how to teach.

—Paul J. Shanley, *Sunnyslope Elementary School, Hollister, California.*

Second Thoughts and Clarification

I participated in a panel discussion that provided the basis for "What's Troubling High School Students?" (September Today's Education). After reading the article I find that *some* of the positions I expressed in the discussions are not in accordance with what I now believe.

Therefore, in fairness to myself and my school I have listed five points:

1. I believe that there is a repressive atmosphere in many schools, my own included (to some extent). Such a milieu understandably detracts from a good education. However, I should have made it clear that there is no question in my mind that I *have* learned in school.

As I mentioned on the panel, our school offers many innovative courses and many advanced courses. Such offerings are a great stride forward, but it is a shame that one has to wait until the last years of one's education to take advantage of them.

2. My brief "analysis" of the drug situation in our school also needs explanation. Drugs have come into greater use, and some barriers have been broken down. Nevertheless, many social, economic, and racial barriers are still up, as high and as sturdy as ever.

3. My comments on troop withdrawals from Vietnam were not made seriously. I realize that withdrawal is more complicated than merely taking "every commercial airline and every commercial boat" and bringing our boys home from Vietnam right away. I do believe, however, that our involvement in Vietnam is a criminal tragedy and that the United States must withdraw with haste.

4. I stated that "the only way students can express concern when there are no alternatives is by the disruption of their daily life" (that is, strikes).

This may be an appropriate method for dealing with school policy matters when all other means fail. But I have become increasingly aware in the past few months that at the present time there is no *effective* way that students, or anybody else, can express concern and see real change when they are radically opposed to government policy.

5. I said that the people I admire most are Rennie Davis and John Froines of the Chicago conspiracy. Because I am not intimately familiar with their political views, I cannot say that my admiration is an indication of support. What I admire is their dedication, as I admire the dedication of Gandhi or any other committed human being.

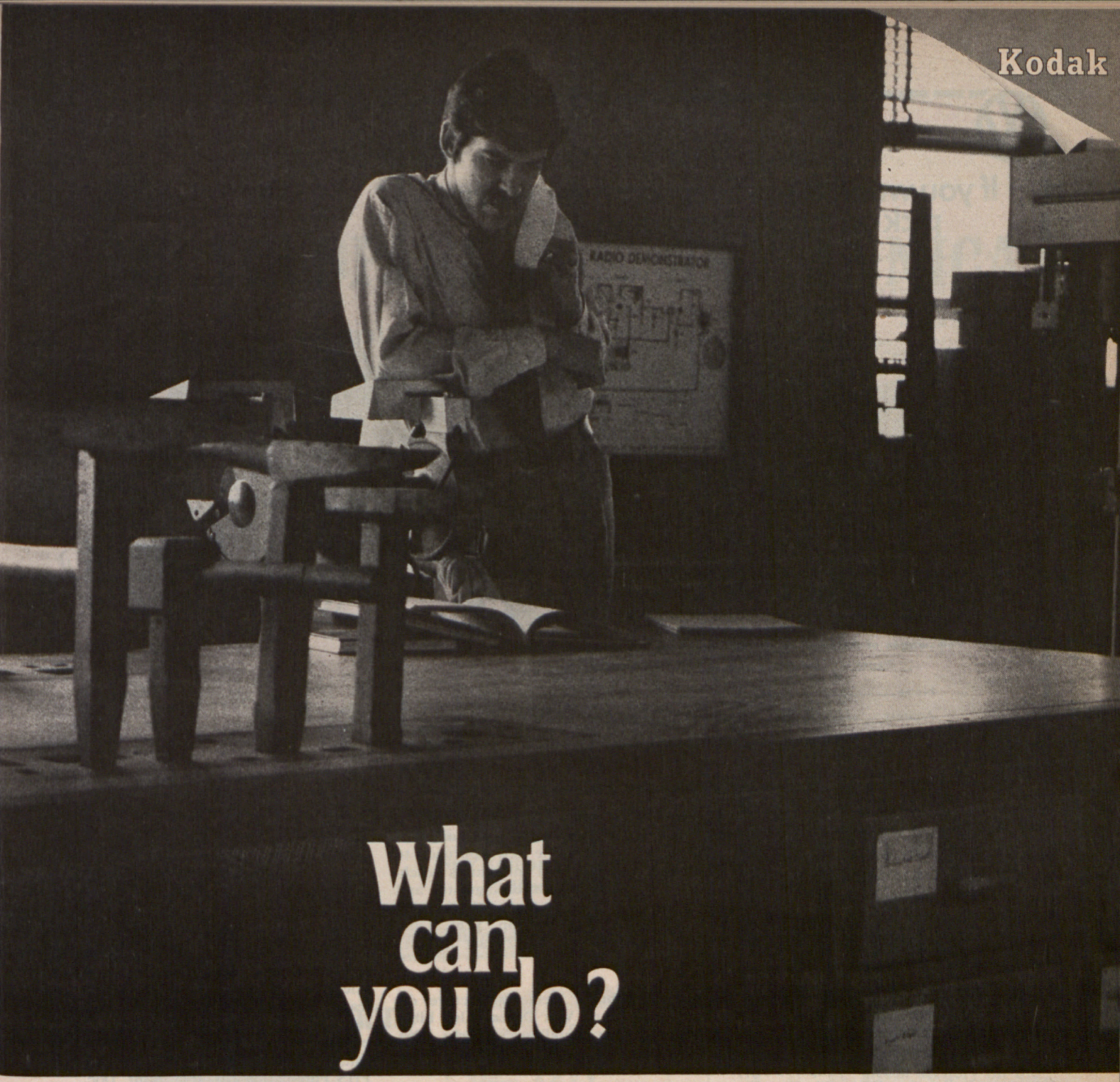
—Susan Arshack, *Silver Spring, Maryland.*

Finance Information Helpful

Thank you for another excellent article in the "Your Personal Finances" feature in the December issue. This feature is contributing much to the financial well-being of all educators. "Buy or Rent?" by Robert W. Murray, Jr., is an excellent example of the kind of comprehensive information all of us need.

By continuing to present outstanding articles like this one on such subjects as income tax, investments, and other areas of personal finance for educators, you are making TODAY'S EDUCATION indis-

(*Continued on page* 12)



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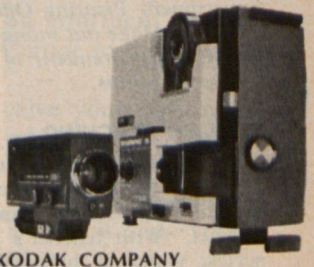

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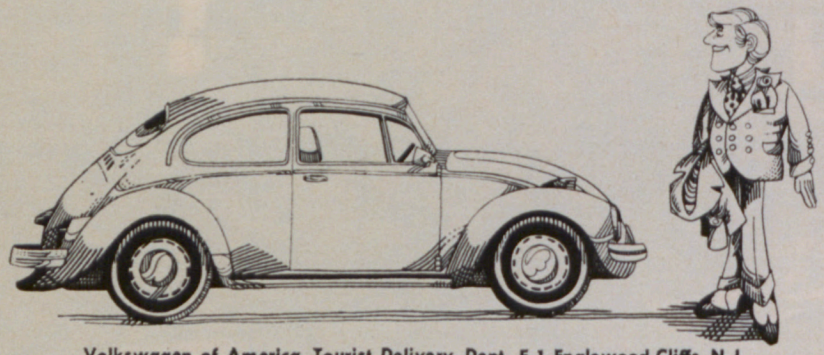

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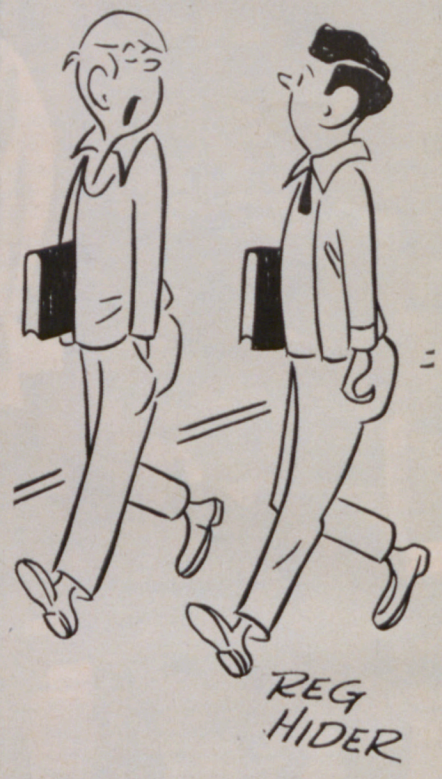

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Afro-American Literature: Drama. A study of "A Raisin in the Sun," "A Land Beyond the River," and "Purlie Victorious." With teacher's guide. One in a series, which includes fiction and nonfiction. 1970. 248 pp. $1.35 net. Houghton Mifflin Co., 110 Tremont St., Boston 02107.

American Negro Folktales. Black folklore and tales. With introduction, notes, bibliography, and indexes of motifs and types of tales. 1969. 384 pp. 75¢. Education Department, Fawcett Publications, Greenwich, CT 06830.

Aspects of Language and Language Teaching. Explains the new approach to language teaching and introduces teachers and students to the linguistic and psychological theories that underlie modern methods. 1968. 175 pp. $1.65. Cambridge University Press, 32 East 57th St., New York 10022.

Carl Sandburg. Memorial lecture delivered by Mark Van Doren. Also bibliography of Mr. Sandburg's works. 1969. 83 pp. 50¢. Cat. No. LC 29.9:V28. Supt. Doc.

Speaking of a Free Press. A collection of notable quotations about newspapers and a free press. 1970. 25 pp. Single copy free. American Newspaper Publishers Assn. Foundation, 750 Third Ave., New York 10017.

Survey of Broadcast Journalism, 1968-1969. A look at how television and radio report the news; how they serve the public; and how they live with politicians, advertisers, and the Federal Communications Commission. 1970. 132 pp. $1.95. Grosset & Dunlap, 51 Madison Ave., New York 10010.

Tests of Reading Readiness and Achievement. Reviews and evaluates the limitations and strengths of specific reading tests now available from the point of view of content and statistical characteristics. 1969. 51 pp. $2. Intl. Reading Assn., 6 Tyre Ave., Newark, DE 19711.

HEALTH EDUCATION

Learning Disabilities Due to Minimal Brain Dysfunction. Reports on medical scientists' efforts to identify victims of learning disabilities as early as possible, to assist them with special medical and educational programs, and to pinpoint causes of the affliction. 1967. 30 pp. 20¢. PHS Publication No. 1646. Supt. Doc.

Smoking and Health Experiments, Demonstrations, and Exhibits. Describes experiments that can be performed with and without laboratory equipment. Also suggests ideas for exhibits. 1969. 21 pp. 20¢. PHS Publication No. 1843. Supt. Doc.

Toward Emotional Health in the Schools Through Informal Group Process. Presents the objectives and rationale, the teaching-learning process, and evaluation of workshops for professional school personnel at two campuses of the University of Wisconsin. 1969. 78 pp. Single copies free. Division of Health, Wisconsin Department of Health and Social Services, Box 309, Madison 53701.

(*Continued on page* 70)

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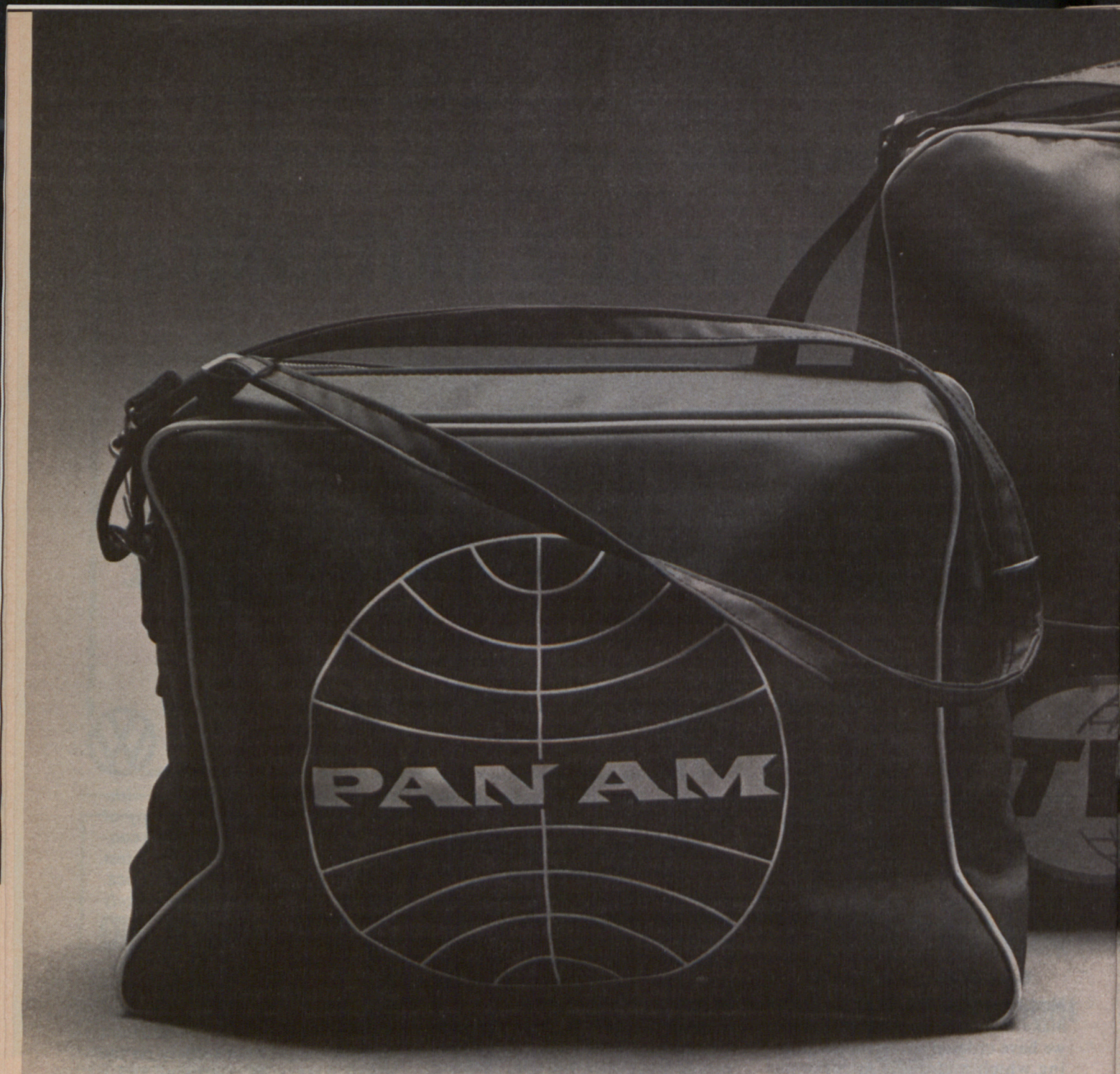

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(*Continued from page 6*)

pensable. We appreciate your help in this vital area.

—Don O. Lyon, *associate professor, educational administration, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana.*

• *See page 38 for "Income Tax Information for Teachers."*

Special Feature on Pollution

The students of the Biology Club at Oak Park-River Forest High School compliment you and your staff on the excellent feature on pollution in your December issue. Since the establishment of the Pollution Control Center here, the students and administration have been working actively to combat environmental problems.

We are encouraged to hear of the efforts of other students in this area.

—Nancy Stockholm, *president, and* Edward C. Radatz, *faculty sponsor, Biology Club, Oak Park-River Forest (Illinois) High School, Oak Park.*

Education and Industry

I read with considerable interest the article in your December issue by Samuel M. Burt ("You May Not Agree, but . . . Education and Industry Can Make a Great Team") concerning the necessity for the school superintendent to actively seek the support of industrial concerns in his community. I subscribe to what he says—with one addition: Most school systems should engage someone knowledgeable in public relations on a full-time basis, particularly in those systems where the superintendent or any of his subordinates lacks training in this area.

No better example of a school working with industry can be found than that of Virginia Polytechnic Institute. Through their cooperation with industrial establishments (the Lane Company among others), a number of companies have donated sufficient funds to construct a continuing educational and learning center, capable of handling large meetings as well as smaller ones, with dining as well as guest-room facilities and exhibit space. This is known as the Donaldson-Brown Center.

Having taught courses in human relations in industry, I can further attest to the willingness of industrial personnel to cooperate with school people by arranging plant tours, speaking before classes, and the like.

—Robert J. Wilkinson, Jr., *Virginia Western Community College, Roanoke.*

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THE LANGUAGE OF

THE SEARCHING MIND

STEPHEN STEINBERG, *research sociologist, Survey Research Center, University of California (Berkeley).*

□ **Prejudice in some ways resembles language.** *Kike, dago, nigger,* and *wetback* are all part of the graceless vocabulary of prejudice. They differ from *Jew, Italian, Black,* and *Mexican* in that they convey meanings and images that disparage these groups and imply contempt. When blacks repudiate the use of the word *Negro,* they are attempting to leave behind the connotations of submissiveness and dependency this word can imply.

Like language, prejudice has a syntax—a system of rules—that designates which adjectives can properly be attached to which social groups. *Primitive, lazy,* and *immoral* are typically applied to blacks, not to Jews. Instead, Jews are identified as *rich, unethical, clannish;* Italians as *greasy* or *impulsive;* Poles as *dumb;* Mexicans as *shiftless;* Japanese as *sneaky;* Catholics as *priest-ridden* and *superstitious;* women as *passive, emotional,* and *incompetent.*

One of the lesser inequities of prejudice is that the dominant group is rarely subjected to the same abusive characterization. It is not difficult to understand why this is so. The dominant group is able to set the standards of what is worthy and respectable in physical appearance, cultural values, and social behavior. Unsurprisingly, it chooses the styles of its own group, so defined that they can only be imperfectly approximated by members of other groups. The clearest example is the high value that has been placed on white skin, which automatically diminishes the prestige and life chances of large groups and entire cultures.

It is perhaps a feature of cultural domination that the stereotypes minorities create of the dominant group typically make reference to their own victimization. Thus whites or white Christians (depending on who is making the judgment) are seen as *insensitive, bigoted, exploitative,* and *cruel.* In a society such as ours, where prejudice has deep roots in history and culture, hardly any group escapes negative stereotyping, and few individuals are unburdened by prejudiced attitudes toward groups other than their own.

The old refrain that "sticks and stones can break my bones, but names can never hurt me" is true only in part. There are few people whose psychological armor is so sturdy that they do not feel wounded by unkind words, let alone a steady flow of derogatory language. However, prejudice is not just a social grammar, a way of talking about cultural minorities. The behavioral expressions of prejudice, and the many forms of discrimination practiced against minority groups, are even more damaging.

The consequences of prejudice and discrimination are all too evident. Most of our nation's minorities live in distressing social conditions, while the majority enjoys relative security and affluence. Others, like Jews, who have managed to bypass or overcome many of the discriminatory barriers once confronting them, are still excluded from major areas of economic activity and are still stigmatized as socially undesirable. For members of victimized groups, the result is diminished self-esteem and a defensive withdrawal within one's self or one's own group. For society as a whole, the result is intense social conflict and loss of civic unity. Like other kinds of verbal abuse, the language of prejudice carries a heavy price.

The most important similarity between prejudice and language is that prejudice is typically acquired as easily, and in much the same way, as language itself. From an early age, children hear the adjective *lazy* attached to blacks, *shady* to Jews, *emotional* to women—just as they learn that men are *strong,* flowers are *beautiful,* and a particular laundry soap leaves clothes *dazzling.*

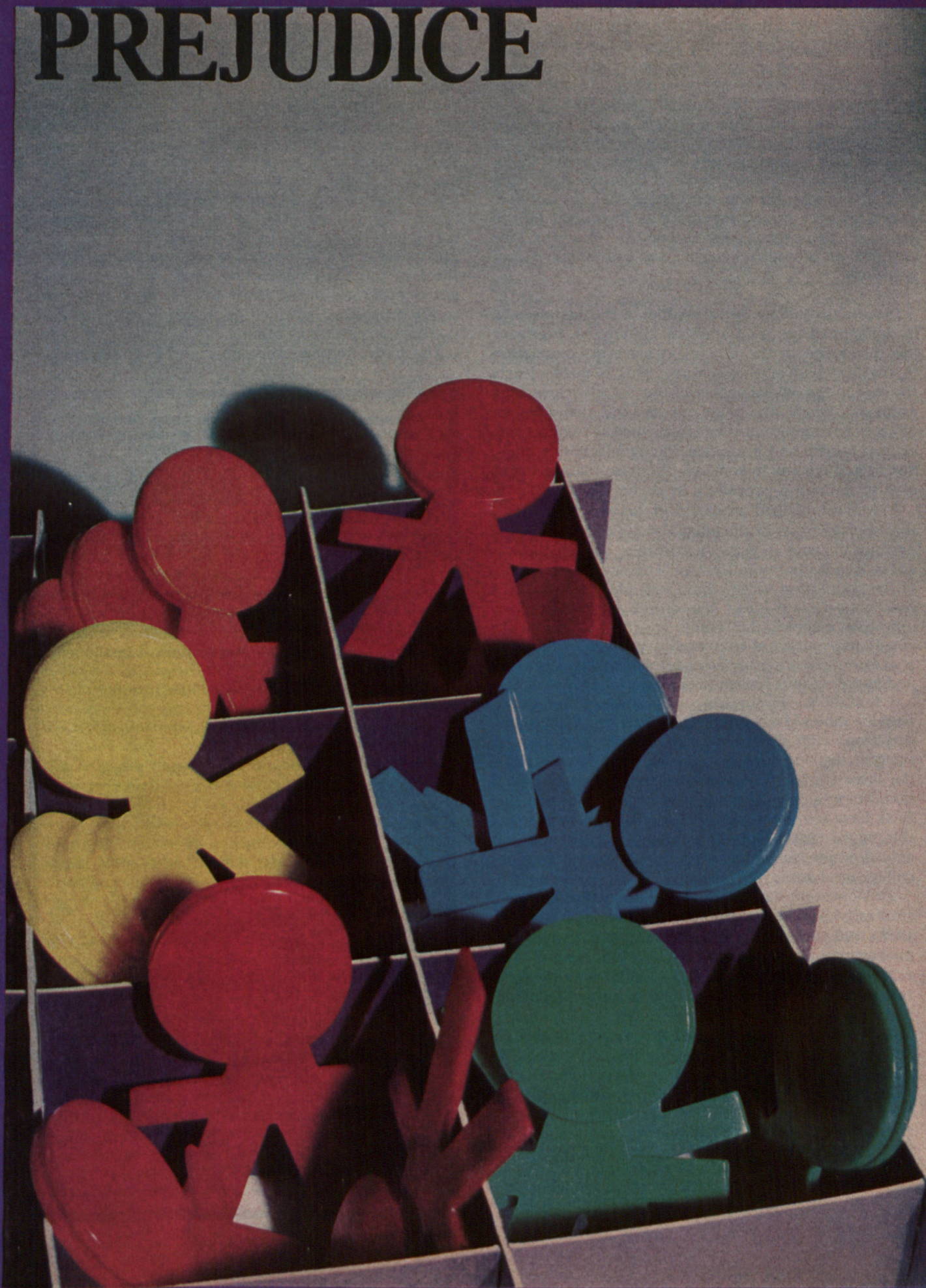
Once these images are adopted, they operate as filters on the individual's perception and understanding of the world around him. Should he encounter a black who appears lazy, he interprets this as confirming the stereotype. At the same time, he filters out all those cases that contradict the stereotype. Since our society has no image of whites as lazy, the unambitious white, like the industrious black, receives little notice. This self-confirming mechanism is part of the reason people cling to their prejudices with so much conviction.

Another reason is that prejudiced beliefs sometimes succeed in producing the very social conditions assumed by those beliefs. Every teacher knows that high expectations and encouragement can bring out the best in children and spur them on to higher levels of performance.

Low expectations and unsupportive attitudes generally have the opposite result. For example, as an experiment, teachers were assigned a group of minority children with average IQ scores but were told that

This article may provide a basis for classroom discussions during Brotherhood Week, February 21-28.

PREJUDICE



the children were underachievers with high aptitude. These children subsequently showed far greater improvement on objective tests than did those in a control group where teachers were not given an overgenerous estimate of the students' capacities.

In the same way, when a society fosters the image of women as incompetent (outside the home, of course), and if women have little opportunity to develop and exercise their talents, it is hardly surprising that in many cases the stereotype will be fulfilled. Every instance of incompetence is then used as evidence of the original stereotype. In this way, the language of prejudice becomes self-fulfilling and self-justifying.

Despite the intense racial conflict of the past decade, in some respects an improved climate of tolerance has developed in the nation, at least in comparison to the first half of this century. This is most clearly the case in the official sphere of our society. Governing agencies, courts, the mass media, and many public officials have gone on record, in word if not in deed, against racism and prejudice. Partly as a result, there has been a decline in some of the more blatant forms of discrimination prevailing in earlier decades.

A well-established proposition in sociology states that such changes in the official society will inevitably produce changes in popular attitudes, though there is apt to be a lag between the two. This was the rationale of the population survey that Gertrude Selznick and I conducted in late 1964.* Based on a nationally representative sample, the study sought to assess the extent and sources of contemporary anti-Semitism. We also examined other forms of intolerance that are part and parcel of anti-Jewish prejudice.

A few of our findings are presented in the accompanying table. The column on the extreme right shows the proportion of the national sample that gave intolerant responses to various questions. The center of the table shows the breakdown by amount of education. For example, 12 percent of the sample said that Jews have too much power in the United States, and this figure varied from 18 percent among those with only a grade school education to 5 percent among college graduates.

This question on Jewish power again illustrates the similarity between prejudice and language. The late 1930's and early 1940's saw an upsurge of anti-Semitic propaganda, and the connection between *power* and *Jew* was a regular occurrence. Public acceptance of this characterization in this country reached alarming proportions.

A 1938 national poll reported that 41 percent thought Jews had too much power in the United States. This figure steadily increased during the war years to a peak of 58 percent in 1945. The present figure of 12 percent thus indicates great improvement. However, the lesson of the past is that even such politically dangerous beliefs are subject to precipitous change in a crisis situation.

Unlike the belief in Jewish power, certain economic beliefs that have always been at the heart of anti-Semitism have hardly declined. For example, 42 percent of our sample accepted the characterization of Jews as prone to shady practices, and 28 percent disagreed that "Jews are just as honest as other businessmen." These figures are not very different from those reported in polls during the 1950's. Even the old canard about Jewish control of international banking is still held by a fourth of the population.

A major conclusion of our study was that at least a third of the adult population show definite signs of anti-Semitic prejudice. Many others, while not themselves prejudiced, are willing to acquiesce in or condone the prejudice of others.

The basic finding concerning anti-Negro prejudice

PERCENT AT EACH EDUCATIONAL LEVEL WHO GIVE INTOLERANT ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS DEALING WITH SOCIAL AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY

(Based on a 1964 National Sample of Adults)

Amount of Education	Grade School	High School	Some College	College Graduates	Total
Do you think Jews have too much power in the United States? (yes)	18%	10%	4%	5%	12%
Jews are just as honest as other businessmen (disagree)	34%	28%	24%	14%	28%
Jews are more willing than others to use shady practices to get what they want (agree)	54%	42%	36%	21%	42%
In general, do you think that Negroes are as intelligent as white people—that is, can they learn things just as well if they are given the same education and training? (no)	21%	18%	22%	16%	19%
Do you think white children and Negro children should go to the same schools or to separate but equal schools? (separate)	55%	38%	24%	17%	38%
Generally speaking, Negroes are lazy and don't like to work hard (agree)	49%	41%	31%	23%	40%
Persons who insist on wearing beards should not be allowed to teach in public schools. (agree)	39%	23%	16%	12%	25%
Suppose a man admitted in public that he did not believe in God. Should he be allowed to teach in a public high school? (no)	78%	58%	46%	38%	60%
America owes a great deal to the immigrants who came here (disagree)	30%	26%	16%	12%	24%
Nothing in other countries can beat the American way of life (agree)	86%	71%	54%	41%	70%

*The findings are reported in *The Tenacity of Prejudice: Anti-Semitism in Contemporary America* by Gertrude J. Selznick and Stephen Steinberg. (Harper. 1969.) Much of the substance of this paper derives from the larger study, which was conducted under a grant from the Anti-Defamation League.

is much the same. Comparisons with past surveys indicate a rather steady decline in certain beliefs, but there still remains a sizable amount of prejudice.

As the table shows, in the nation as a whole, 19 percent believe that blacks have lower intellectual capabilities than whites; 38 percent favor separate schools for blacks and whites; and 40 percent agree that Negroes are lazy and don't like to work hard. In both the North and South, these figures represent improvement over times past. But past levels of prejudice were so high that, despite steady improvement for over two decades, there is still a very long way to go before either anti-Semitism or anti-Negro prejudice can be said to be vanishing.

As with blacks and Jews, our society has a stereotype of teachers, with the important exception that it is favorable in most respects and leads to respectful rather than unequal and exploitative relationships. Teachers are *dedicated, conscientious, correct* in appearance, and *devout* in spirit. Noncomformity to this image arouses intolerant attitudes. When our 1964 sample was asked whether persons with beards should be allowed to teach in the schools, one in every four answered "no." When the same question was asked about persons who did not believe in God, 60 percent said they would bar such people from the classroom.

The last two items in the table deal with foreigners. Despite the legendary image of America as a "nation of immigrants," about one quarter of our sample denied that "America owes a great deal to the immigrants who came here." And 70 percent went along with the statement that "nothing in other countries can beat the American way of life." Xenophobia, provincialism, intolerance of nonconformity, antiintellectualism—these are the cousins of the kinds of prejudices directed against specific groups.

Each of the items listed in the table measures the extent to which people tolerate one or another kind of social diversity: Jews, blacks, atheists, foreigners, people with beards. All but one is strongly and systematically related to education. No matter what the specific content of the item, the more educated tend to be tolerant in their attitudes; the less educated, to be intolerant.

This leads to two conclusions: First, prejudice tends to come in bundles. Few people are prejudiced against just one group. For example, those who are prejudiced against blacks also tend to be prejudiced against Jews, and those who are prejudiced against Jews tend to discriminate against bearded teachers.

The bigot always pleads he is not prejudiced, but is responding to actual traits of the groups in question. This defense is rendered suspect when he exhibits a pattern of intolerance against virtually everything outside a narrow range of acceptability.

A second conclusion is that the tendency to tolerate differences is acquired with greater education. This finding challenges the theory that the capacity for tolerance or intolerance is primarily a matter of personality, inalterably laid down in early childhood. As teachers know firsthand, the educational process can modify and counteract social influences and personality factors conducive to prejudice. Education does so by providing people with moral and intellectual criteria for evaluating and rejecting the beliefs in their environment.

Some of these criteria are scientific; many prejudiced beliefs can be shown to be overgeneralized, inaccurate, or untrue. Until very recently, racial theories that explained social differences between groups in terms of biological or genetic factors were almost universally accepted. Today they are regarded as the folklore of a prescientific age. Social science, through its improved understanding of social and psychological processes, has also debunked many racial theories.

Other criteria for rejecting prejudice involve democratic principles. People are better equipped to reject prejudice if they understand that in a democracy certain rights are guaranteed to all, and that inequality of wealth and power, while not itself incompatible with democracy, cannot be so great as to result in the subordination of some groups to others. Indeed, our study showed that persons with greater knowledge and understanding of the Constitution were less prejudiced as a result.

Finally, there are humanitarian reasons for rejecting prejudice—especially when its consequences are considered. The net effect of prejudice is to diminish the humanity of the prejudiced and their victims alike.

Scientific, democratic, and humanitarian principles are unfortunately not part of man's natural endowment, but rather the products of advanced civilization. They are subtle and complex principles, and, if only for this reason, the task of transmitting them falls largely on educational institutions.

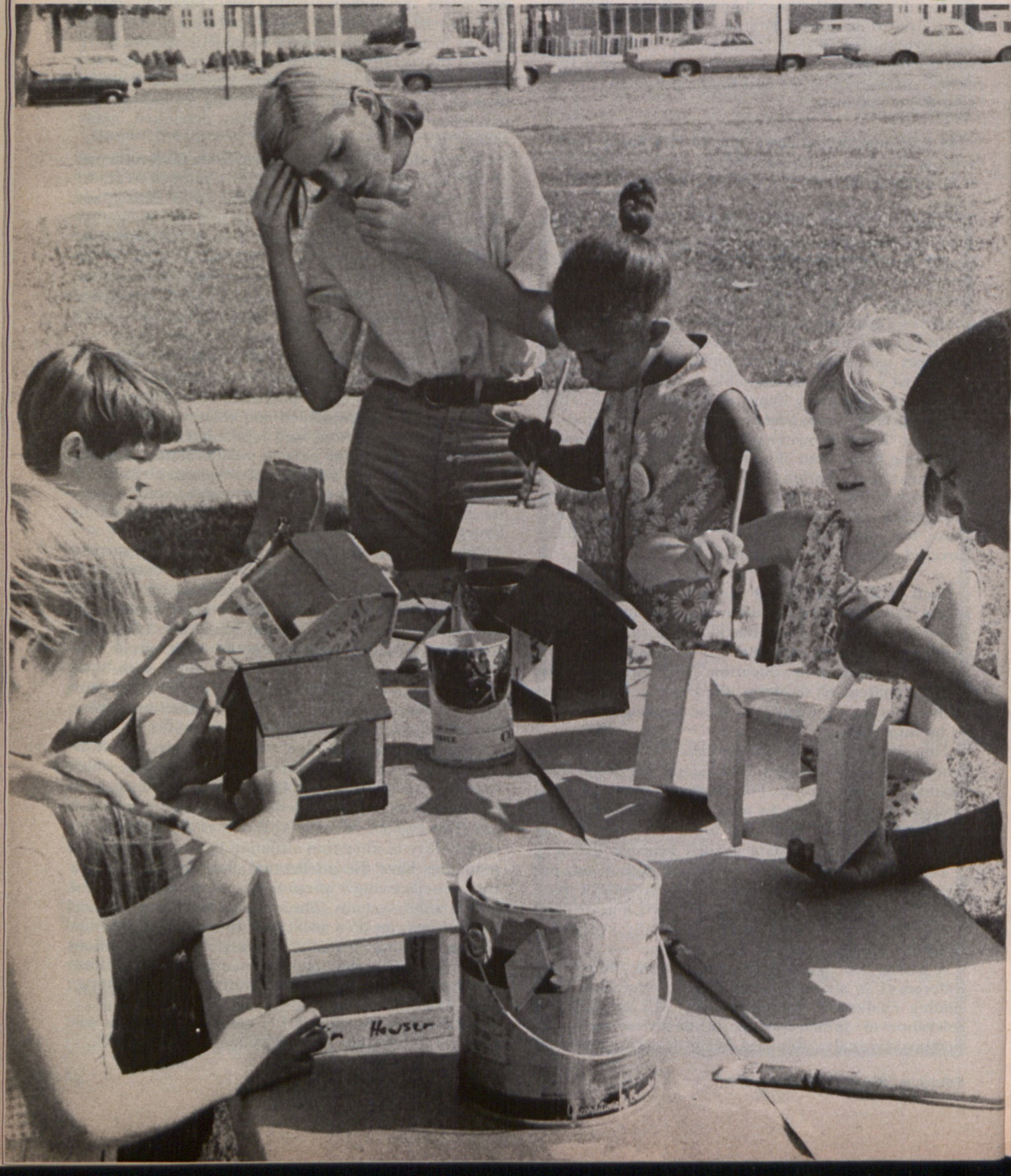
The figures in the table testify to both the success and failure of these institutions. To the extent that open-mindedness, tolerance, and respect for civil liberties increase with greater education, the schools are succeeding in their educational functions. To the extent that students leave schools with prejudiced attitudes toward the nation's minorities, with little patience for social and intellectual diversity, and with little understanding or respect for the democratic process, the schools are failing.

Other studies show that the schools are rife with the same intolerant and provincial attitudes which exist in society as a whole. Of course, it is not the fault of the schools that students mirror the prejudices found elsewhere in society. But it *is* the schools' responsibility to alter that situation by seeing that their graduates have the intellectual and moral sophistication to reject vulgar prejudices and other such retrograde belief systems. The nation's legal and political institutions can do a great deal to combat discrimination and remedy some of the tragic social conditions that result. But the schools are practically the only institutions in our society equipped to counteract prejudices in our culture.

To avoid this responsibility would indicate not just a moral failure, but an educational failure as well. □

SUMMER SCHOOL

OUTDOORS



DEANE N. HAERER, *director, school-community relations, Des Moines (Iowa) Independent Community School District.*

□ **Strangely enough, the story of our Outdoor School** in Des Moines began on a subzero day in January 1970, when a group of elementary school principals and teachers gathered to formulate plans for a summer school program geared to the needs of inner-city children.

When the planning group met that cold winter day, everyone agreed we needed a program that would excite the imagination of children, parents, and teachers and that would provide new experiences unattainable in a regular classroom. To be sure, the summer seemed a long way off, but developing a new program was going to take time, and an early start seemed a must.

Midway during this brainstorming session, someone asked, "Why not hold summer school outdoors?" As the pros and cons of this novel idea were discussed, the group became convinced that perhaps it wasn't such a far-out idea after all. What better place to teach science, ecology, Indian lore, art, history, music, swimming, dancing—and human relationships—than in nature's own exciting setting? And so our Outdoor School concept was born.

Members of the group made short work of outlining a program. But then they realized they must find answers to two difficult questions: What outdoor setting in Des Moines could accommodate 400 youngsters and a 76-member staff? and Who would finance the project? Everyone agreed the program would require a flexible facility that would offer maximum space for conducting simultaneous classes outdoors, provide shelter from inclement weather, and offer privacy from public traffic—all within the Des Moines city limits.

After much debate, someone proposed: "Why not use the Iowa State Fairgrounds?" Here was a truly exciting and innovative possibility. After a committee had presented the idea to the executive secretary of the Iowa State Fair Board, the Board agreed to offer the entire fairgrounds—400 acres—for the project. The Outdoor School had found a home!

The next hurdle involved financing. Since local funds were out of the question, we submitted a $35,000 proposal for the Outdoor School under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, and it was approved during the spring of 1970.

By early spring, the program was planned and the staff selected. In April and May, parents received letters announcing the program. In response, several hundred of them requested that their children (grades two through five in seven inner-city public schools and three parochial schools) take part in a five-week program, beginning June 15.

Now the program was ready for implementation. A parent advisory council with representatives from all participating schools met with the program coordinators and their staff to plan specifics of the proposed curriculum. Innovation became the watchword in providing encouraging and rewarding out-of-door experiences for inner-city children.

Early in the day on June 15, 429 youngsters piled into buses at their regular schools and rode to the Iowa State Fairgrounds, where they scrambled out, eager to participate in a new and exciting program. The Fairgrounds offers 400 acres with nature trails, recreational and wooded areas, and a campground.

The pupils used all the riches that the fairgrounds made available to them, but the primary setting for the Outdoor School was the huge Varied Industries Building, located near the entrance. This building is basically a roof supported on columns over two-and-a-half acres of cement slab floor. This setting has the advantage of offering protection from rain while giving a tremendous feeling of spaciousness.

"Once in a while a child would just take off and run the length of the building," one of the program's coordinators reports. "But this is good: Kids need to be able to run. The more crowded people are, the more likely they are to have difficulties. We had fewer disciplinary problems here because of the openness."

Two-thirds of the 429 pupils in the Outdoor School were white, and the rest were black. The teaching staff consisted of 20 teachers, seven teacher associates, 13 noncertificated personnel (largely parents of inner-city schoolchildren), and 36 student aides.

Much of the summer program involved such outdoor activities as singing while seated in a circle under a tree, studying animal and plant life in natural surroundings, and taking part in outdoor sports.

The daily program for each child consisted of three periods from 9 o'clock to noon covering the following: Science (every day); arts and crafts (every day); physical education (two days a week); music (one day per week); swimming (one day per week); field trips (every day). Since all six activities were conducted five days a week, we were usually able to avoid that rigidity in scheduling that forces a child to forego one chosen activity in order to participate in another that comes at the same time.

Groups of 20 to 25 students took part in each activity. Teaching-team leaders met regularly with their team members to plan the daily events. A master schedule showed at a glance where each group was and what activity it was engaging in that day.

The outdoor setting for the summer program is not a cure-all for all school-related problems, but its apparent benefits are encouraging. For example, it seems to have a potential for improving race relations. A program coordinator cites one instance: "Last spring we took a group of youngsters, 74 percent of whom were black, on an outing to a lake. During that excursion, we recorded some remarkable interracial camaraderie that we believe would have been impossible to achieve in the traditional schoolhouse setting."

Since staff, parents, and students, have positive reactions to the program, it is not surprising that recommendations are already in the mill for running a bigger Outdoor School program this summer. □

The Laboratory Approach to Elementary Mathematics

EDWINA DEANS, *former specialist for elementary school mathematics, U.S. Office of Education.*

□ **Elementary teachers are finding the laboratory** approach an effective means of individualizing the teaching of mathematics. The approach is useful in motivating children to learn, in providing them with more than one way of learning the same material, and in fitting methods to the child's learning style.

The laboratory approach exposes children to a wide range of manipulative, concrete materials and practical activities from which they can abstract mathematical ideas. Each child has the opportunity to learn individually—at his own rate—and to work with a buddy (or a small group) as he explores and discovers mathematical relationships. Both teachers and students experience delight in an approach that emphasizes individual learning—in settings that foster discovery and lead children to experience math that not only makes sense to them but is fun to learn.

An elementary school mathematics laboratory doesn't have to be an all or none affair. It may start with a few well-chosen materials arranged on a table and shelves in a corner of the classroom.

Of course, it would be highly desirable to have a special laboratory room with its own mathematics equipment—and ample storage space where materials can be categorized, labeled, and made accessible to teachers and students. Such a room should have lots of open space, with furniture (mainly tables and chairs) that can be easily moved about. However limited or extensive the lab may be, it should be operated with the full cooperation of the school's library resource center, thus ensuring that films, filmstrips, tapes, and supplementary books and reference materials will be readily available.

The teacher who sets up a mathematics laboratory has at least three general types of materials in mind. The first type is largely motivational and encourages children to learn mathematics. The second type provides horizontal enrichment of the basic program for each child at his level. The third type offers vertical enrichment of the kind that enables the child to work on extensions of topics included in the program and on selected topics outside the program.

Games, mathematical puzzles, and tricks are examples of the motivational type of material. Some games require children to build number sentences and equations (Tuf, Equations) while others provide practice in operations with whole numbers and fractions (Number Bingo, Orbiting the Earth). Examples of mathematical puzzles include the Tower of Hanoi (or pyramid puzzle); the Chinese shuttle (or strip puzzle); and Tangram puzzles, in which two or more pieces are fitted together to form a square, triangle, or hexagon. Puzzle games (Twenty-One, Nim) fascinate young and old alike.

Shortcuts for adding and multiplying, schemes for finding a person's age and the month in which he was born or for telling the number a person is thinking of, and the arrangement of numbers in magic squares may look like tricks to the observer. However, with the use of cue cards which take children through a sequence of activities, a student may discover the rules and principles on which puzzles and tricks of this sort are based. Logical thought, practice on number facts, and discovery of mathematical principles and relationships are highly desirable concomitant values to the major purpose of stimulating and maintaining children's interest in learning mathematics.

Horizontal enrichment materials supplement the program by providing concrete experiences when a new topic is introduced. Their function is to extend the development of a concept, or to offer a different way of approaching a topic.

Two examples of horizontal enrichments for young children are attribute blocks or similar materials varying in size, color, and shape which are used in working with sets, and the Piaget-type activities which guide children to form concepts of conservation of number and counting, of order and reversibility. These are essential prerequisites to learning the facts of the operations.

For slightly older children in the elementary school, materials already in use by some teachers could qualify: rods, beads, and blocks based on a standard unit (Cuisenaire rods, Dienes blocks), counting frames, hundred boards, place value materials, flannel boards, and cutouts—for work with whole numbers, fractions, geometry, and problem solving—as well as a magnetized section of the chalkboard with a supply of magnetic discs and other shapes to use on it.

The teacher should select horizontal enrichment materials to help individual pupils overcome specific difficulties and to reteach topics that are preventing them from making progress in mathematics. This im-

This article was prepared with the cooperation of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, an NEA National Affiliate.

A free, annotated bibliography on the laboratory approach to the teaching of elementary school mathematics is available on request. Send a stamped, self-addressed envelope to Dept. G, TODAY'S EDUCATION, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

plies starting each pupil at his level of understanding. It also implies diagnosis to uncover gaps in his learning, and remediation through experiences with materials that will help close those gaps.

Assigning a pupil a lot of drill work of the same type that has already given him difficulty is not the answer to his problem. What he really needs is an opportunity to learn by means of a new approach with different materials. And most of all he needs sustained encouragement that will stimulate him to keep working at a task that he feels he can do and wants to do.

These children must also have experience with materials of the motivational type and much experience with a variety of horizontal enrichment materials described earlier. How dull it would be for a child to spend all of his laboratory time in phases of mathematics with which he already feels defeated!

Vertical enrichment consists of providing open-ended, ungraded materials that encourage the child to go as far as his ability and interest enable him to go with a specific topic. These materials are often developed around areas of mathematics that teachers feel receive skimpy treatment in the regular program and that therefore make it difficult for able students to explore their special interests.

For example, to enhance the study of geometry, the laboratory contains such materials as geoboards (nailboards), rubber bands for enclosing geometric shapes, cards or work sheets to guide the pupil in individualized learning, and dot paper simulating the geoboards so that he has a permanent record of his discoveries.

Mirror cards and unbreakable mirrors can stimulate a study of mirror reflections and learning about lines of symmetry. Units developed from current space exploration and sports events, from weather conditions, and other environmental happenings in the news—or units combining either mathematics and science or mathematics and social studies—may bring new insights in mathematics and its relationship to other fields.

Other types of material for vertical enrichment include the Shoe Box Kits developed under the direction of Robert B. Davis of Syracuse University, director of the Madison Project, which was partially sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education, and learning packages and sets of activity cards which are now available on a number of mathematical topics.

Of course, some materials, such as activity cards, serve more than one purpose. They may either be purchased or prepared by teacher and pupils. For example, the following activities require a sheet of one-

inch squared paper, pencil, scissors, and ruler.

Card 1: Place your foot on the paper and trace around it. Cut out the pattern. Determine the number of whole, one-inch squares in your pattern. Put all the pieces of squares together and find out *about* how many whole squares they will make. Write up what you did and how you found your answer.

Card 2: Use your ruler to measure your foot pattern the long way to the nearest inch. This is your foot length. Use your foot length to measure five things in the room. Then use your ruler to measure the same five things, and write up your findings.

If funds for the laboratory are limited, homemade games for providing practice in computation are often highly satisfactory substitutes for commercial products. For example, a simple miniature tenpins game can be made from 10 spring-type clothespins, a small sponge ball, and a runner marked to show starting line at one end and circles at the other arranged to indicate placement of the pins.

A game resembling a commercially produced one can be made from an egg carton. First, write the numerals from 1 through 12 in the partitions of the carton. Use colored, see-through discs to cover the numerals.

A child throws two dice and then covers either a single numeral in the egg carton that represents the sum of the throw or any two numbers that add up to the sum. He continues until he can no longer cover any of the remaining numerals or until all numerals are covered. (The latter rarely happens.)

The player finds his score by adding the numbers which he has been unable to cover. Since a low score is desirable in this game, each child tries to figure out the strategy of covering numbers that will enable him to get the lowest possible score.

Children enjoy collecting materials for the laboratory, and they are often able to assist in categorizing and classifying them for later use. One day they might concentrate on bringing in materials to use as counters: buttons, acorn caps, bottle tops, small stones, and large seeds. Another day they might bring containers made in various geometric shapes—cube, cylinder, and the like. Children also enjoy collecting pictures that illustrate number facts; maps to use in determining distances; and cloth scraps and wallpaper patterns with repeating designs for use with mirror work.

Pupils receive further experience by classifying materials. For example, they can sort buttons according to the number of holes (0, 2, 4), according to size (small, medium, large), or according to color. Thus, a button collection serves as a satisfactory substitute for attribute blocks.

Once they actively participate in setting up a laboratory, pupils begin to view their surroundings with a mathematical eye. The paper in daddy's adding machine is a natural material for making number lines; mother's kitchen equipment may be useful for the measurement display; throwaways around the house (boxes, cartons, blocks, old clocks) are also useful.

A listening center serves many purposes in the mathematics laboratory. A teacher may prepare practice tapes following diagnosis of the facts a pupil needs to practice. On the basis of written and oral interview testing, each child would have his own grid table of addition or multiplication. (The facts he already knows are blocked out immediately, and his practice tape is made of the remaining facts.)

The same tables can be used for subtraction and division. To make the tape, read each fact onto the tape—allowing sufficient time after each item for the child to respond orally or in writing. This becomes the child's own tape; he may listen to it as often as necessary. As a pupil works on his practice tape and sees the task becoming smaller and less formidable, he is encouraged to keep working for accurate responses until all facts are blocked out.

Tapes may also help children with reading disabilities which interfere with their success in mathematics. Instructions for work sheets and activity cards may be put on tape, until the child develops better reading skills.

Classroom teachers can use a special laboratory room in different ways. Part of the class may have a laboratory period, while the regular teacher works with the rest of the children.

Good students who finish assignments and have time to spare may find greater challenge from laboratory offerings than most classrooms are able to provide. Under no circumstances, however, should the laboratory be reserved only for children who finish assigned work early. Weaker students are stimulated to greater effort as they become successful with individualized activities in the laboratory and begin to grasp some idea of the scope of mathematics.

How to evaluate individual laboratory procedures and results is a persistent problem that challenges the regular classroom teacher and the laboratory teacher alike.

One teacher uses a weekly period when half the class is out of the room for checking the children's progress and for planning future laboratory activities. Some teachers use a file folder for each child with record sheets for checking off work accomplished (games played, or units, work sheets, and activity cards completed). These are checked by the teacher and pupil, as they plan together for the child's needs.

A diary-type record in which the child describes his project, and what he learned from it, is a good self-evaluation device. The possibilities for integrating mathematics with the language arts program are apparent in this approach, for the child must organize his thoughts, plan his work, and express his ideas in sentence form.

Certainly, some aspects of a laboratory approach are feasible for any teacher. As he becomes more comfortable with the approach he has chosen, he may wish to include more mathematics topics, devote more time to them, or even to expand the program to include subjects other than mathematics. □

FUTURE PERFECT

SIDNEY BRODY, *teacher of senior English, Eastchester (New York) High School.*

□ **I am subjected to occasional flashes of insight, at** which times I render a prophecy on what the fates hold in store for my students. This boy's speech, that girl's manner, a certain youngster's foible, all are grist for my Delphic mill.

After long and careful observation of a student, I jot down my prediction on a piece of paper, drop it into my crystal ball, and wait for my prophecy to bear fruit, as did Ezekiel. Since I began predicting fortunes 10 years ago, my record has been better than 90 percent. Not bad for one who doesn't have a solitary point in astrology.

Some years back a chap named Alfred Peltin, who possessed an odd affinity for the pencil sharpener, was in my class. Two or three times a day his pencil point would yield under pressure, and, each time it did, he would raise his hand and ask permission to go to the sharpener. One day, in exasperation, I asked why he was continually breaking his pencil point. Alfred stared at me with his innocent blue eyes and replied, "I write heavy."

Rather than blunt what little enthusiasm he had for writing assignments, I tolerated this minor annoyance. I also jotted a notation regarding Alfred's future and dropped it into my crystal ball. Shortly thereafter, it hardly came as a surprise when, after graduation, Alfred moved to Wisconsin and found a job in a sawmill. I received a letter from him only last month, written in pencil—in "heavy" writing.

Then there was Louise Larrivee, an attractive young thing with a propensity for telephone conversation. She would be at my desk several times a week, begging permission to leave the room to make a phone call. My refusal was invariably firm, if not final. (Louise could melt Dry Ice.)

I peered into my crystal ball and saw Louise seated at a giant switchboard, snarled in a maze of electronic devices. Cast in the role of long-distance operator, she was hardly able to make connections, in spite of her charm.

My crystal ball must have been out of focus, however, because Louise never worked a day in her life. Soon after receiving her diploma, she married a rising young advertising executive, the terminus of her many phone calls. Louise had kept the heart line humming, and her diligence paid off handsomely. I was invited to the wedding . . . by phone.

Predicting futures based on a student's mannerisms may backfire. A safer indication, perhaps, is his method of handling academic problems.

I once asked a glib young senior his opinion on splitting infinitives. "I . . . er . . . I'm glad you asked that question, Sir," he began. "I was . . . er . . . preparing a comprehensive treatise on that very topic for presentation in English IV. However, I will say at this time, without equivocation, that deliberate and promiscuous use of the split infinitive can lead to a steady deterioration of our avenues of communication, cause grave misunderstanding among the English-speaking peoples of the world, and deliver a serious blow to universal peace."

The young man's future was virtually predestined. I knew it would only be a matter of time before I'd find his face on a poster and his name on a ballot.

Occasionally, when a class finishes a composition, I permit the students to exchange papers and write criticisms of their neighbor's paper. A few years ago I happened across a critique written by one David Oppenheim.

"My diagnosis discloses," wrote David, "that this sentence is suffering from weak structure because of a dangling participle in the subordinate clause. I recommend immediate removal of said participle, preparatory to grafting into a less sensitive area."

Last month I received a note, hastily scrawled on a prescription blank. The handwriting, barely legible, showed a marked adulteration, but there was no denying its source. It was from David, informing me that he had just begun his internship at Bellevue Hospital.

When I told my class one year that I am not an advocate of the semicolon, a young maverick raised his hand to protest. "Speaking in defense of the much-maligned semicolon," he began, with appropriate gestures, "I submit that this symbol of the delicate pause has been shamelessly abandoned. I ask you, Ladies and Gentlemen of English IV, is this distinguished mark, once the handmaiden of poets, to be consigned to literary oblivion, or shall we demand its restoration into the lexicon at once?"

His eloquence had an emotional impact. I have never seen, before or since, such a plethora of semicolons as were contained in the compositions that year. Needless to say, the defender of "the handmaiden of poets" went on to become a successful attorney. Just last week he prepared my will—replete with semicolons. □

ADULT EDUCATION AND THE URBAN CRISIS

Parents in Prince George's County, Maryland, study about drug abuse.

RUSSELL F. OLSON, *supervisor, adult education, Prince George's County, Maryland, public schools.*

□ **It would be difficult to find anyone who would** blame children still in school for the rising tide of social problems that now command national attention; problems that—while plaguing all communities—are particularly associated with the "urban crisis." Whether it be the illegal use of drugs, promiscuous sexual behavior, or an apathetic student who refuses to stay in school, it is usually parents or other citizens who get the blame—not the youngsters.

And this is how it should be.

But, if working toward some solution of the complicated social and interpersonal problems of urban living is an adult responsibility, who is responsible for providing the educational means to help adults undo the problems they seem to have helped us all get into?

To say it is the school's job alone is to overlook the responsibility of social welfare agencies, churches, public health services, police protection programs, and many other community-serving, social service resources. To exclude the schools, however, from responsibility is to exempt them from assuming any pride in the quality of their product. For a teacher not to be concerned with the attitudes of the parents of the students he teaches is like expecting a physician to have no interest in the physical environment in which his patients must live or an artist to be unconcerned about the setting in which his hoped-for masterpiece will be displayed.

Responsibility for awareness and sharpening the range of sensitivity of parents—and of citizens generally—cannot be assigned to any one division or department of the school system. Counselors, home visitors, school social workers, health service personnel, and the classroom teacher himself must all be involved.

But as we are well aware, what is everyone's business sometimes turns out to be no one's business. For this reason, the adult education departments of urban school systems are increasingly taking on the responsibility of providing systematic, organized, educational experiences for adults: programs designed to help those served by the schools become better parents, better citizens, and more effective partners in the task of improving education. Such activities range all the way from helping young adults in correctional institutions complete their high school education to helping build optimum levels of social responsibility on the part of the citizens of the community. They also include classes and other educational activities for teachers.

This too is as it should be.

The NEA's Division of Adult Education Service maintains an adult education information service, primarily for the use of state and local education associations. A sampling of the material in the Adult Education Service files indicates that many adult education programs are aimed at meeting various problems of modern living. However, the use and abuse of drugs and narcotics has probably demanded more of the recent attention of public school adult education programs than any other single social problem.

In Lunenburg, Massachusetts, "Project Cope" is an all-out attempt to create a unified and comprehensive community education program. It includes a staff orientation program for every member of the school system, a teacher in-service education course on "Drugs and Family Education," a community adult workshop, and a seven-session course on "Drugs and Family Living." One of the unusual features of the program was the reproduction in mass quantities of a booklet on narcotics and drugs financed by community sponsors and cooperatively endorsed by both the schools and police departments. The booklet is designed to be "read, studied, discussed, and read again, by both parents and students."

The Framingham, Massachusetts, school system sponsored a series of drug seminars for eight consecutive Thursday evenings. The average attendance at each one was around 500 individuals.

Sex education for parents is another area of concern with which public school adult education is dealing forthrightly. In Lincoln, Nebraska, each year the city school system's Adult Education Department (now part of Lincoln Technical College) has teamed up with other community organizations to present a Fall Festival of Learning for adults. A recent Festival offering was a course on "Sex Education in the School, Church, and Home." The purpose of the course was primarily to aid parents in looking at the whys and wherefores of sex education programs conducted in the public schools.

The St. Clair Shores, Michigan, adult education program has offered a class entitled "Sex Communication with Children for Parents," and in Framingham, Massachusetts, the Community Forum lecture series for 1970 was entitled "Marriage in an Age of Social Change."

The Adult Education Division of the Prince George's County, Maryland, public schools has been offering a course entitled "Parents' Concerns in Drug and Sex Education" to increase parents' understanding of normal child growth and development as well as understanding the school programs in these areas. Since the spring semester of 1970, 44 different classes have been held, each class meeting weekly for 12 weeks.

In Flint, Michigan, the Board of Education's Mott Crime and Delinquency Prevention Division has developed a number of programs designed to help reduce the incidence of crime and delinquency. One of these offers to men serving time in the Genesee County Jail accredited high school courses, group therapy, aptitude testing, public speaking, and vocational counseling, as well as job placement assistance and various follow-through services upon their release from jail. The program reports that of the total number of men released from the jail in a recent four-year period, 80 percent of those involved in the Crime and De-

For further information about these and other programs, write the NEA Division of Adult Education Service, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

linquency Prevention Program had not been re-arrested. In the face of the all-too-evident fact that crime breeds crime, this record seems outstanding.

In Philadelphia and in Los Angeles, the adult program provides resource people and meeting places for PTA's and other community groups that are studying community problems, such as drug traffic or teen-age gangs. The Birmingham, Michigan, public schools have offered programs for parents on "The Turbulent Teens" and "Faces of Rebellion."

In Los Angeles, 28 different community adult schools instruct parents on how to help children improve their reading ability at home by such means as identifying their children's special interests, finding out how to use TV as a learning tool, and playing word games.

In Denver, the Emily Griffith Opportunity School offers such classes as "Foods for Thrifty Families" and "Home Decorating on a Shoestring." In the latter program, the school cooperated with a group of church women living in the inner-city target area to help mothers in economically depressed areas learn how to achieve more attractive, healthful, and livable homes. The church women not only provided baby-sitting services for members of the class, but cooperated with the students on such projects as making slip covers and draperies, and repainting furniture.

In Portland, Maine, small groups of mothers have been formed to study the problems of buying food, making and remodeling clothes, managing consumer dollars, and learning how to utilize their interests and experiences in attacking community problems that are having an adverse effect upon their children. Some of the groups meet in neighborhood homes; others, in agency centers. The Denver public schools operate a similar home-centered educational program.

Many public school systems offer educational activities for parents of children enrolled in Head Start programs. These involve all facets of homemaking with particular emphasis on helping low-income adults develop a sense of more influential citizenship in their schools and community.

Any catalog of adult education activities related to the problems of tension in everyday living should probably include the "Smoking Withdrawal Clinic" held by the Redwood Adult School in Marin County, California, and "Recovery Incorporated," a self-help technique for people suffering from nervous disorders that the adult education program has made available to the citizens of Kalamazoo, Michigan.

All of the above programs are in addition to some of the more traditional thrusts of the schools' adult education programs—namely the Adult Basic Education Program, the high school completion program, and the dropout-prevention program.

Adult Basic Education programs of today are a far cry from the literacy programs of yesterday. Without exception, ABE programs today have become almost a synonym for a meaningful curriculum relevant to an adult's life needs. The reading material used in today's Adult Basic Education programs deals with renting an apartment, comparison shopping, applying for a job, and maintaining safety standards on the job. Similarly, the arithmetic problems are concerned with computing earnings and taxes, budgeting, and time payments. The Adult Basic Education student also learns how to become a participating citizen, how to be more effective in managing family situations, and how to register and vote.

Thanks to a recent amendment to the Elementary-Secondary Education Act signed by President Nixon last April, the federal government is now authorized to give support to the development of high school completion programs for adults. Here again, most school systems are developing functional programs relevant to the needs of those denied opportunity for high school completion in their youth.

In many communities, the adult education program has worked with those responsible for secondary education in developing dropout-prevention programs. In Seattle and Milwaukee, programs developed in cooperation with the Job Corps make it possible for potential dropouts not only to earn while they learn but to participate in a curriculum in which job skills are closely related with learning various academic competencies. In Fort Wayne, a remedial program has been developed in cooperation with the Neighborhood Youth Corps which makes it possible for potential dropouts to enroll in a special Youth Learning Laboratory. Here students can continue their education on an individual basis for two hours a day, upgrading basic learning skills and orienting themselves toward re-entering the regular schools program.

In the Fairfax County, Virginia, public schools, high school credit scheduling is being modified to provide a program for students who are potential dropouts. In addition to the regular evening high school program, a modified scheduling system has been devised to utilize the school time for Adult High School credit classes from 8 A.M. until 10 P.M. This has been done by utilizing all available space not in use by the regular school program, by offering adult education classes immediately following the close of the day program, and by integrated scheduling for both the regular day students and the adult high school students. This flexible scheduling not only provides better opportunities for daytime students—enabling them to take advantage of work opportunities, to make a new start in a different atmosphere, to accumulate elective credits, or to participate in instructional activities not available during the regular day schedule—but makes it possible for adults to attend classes during the day if they wish.

A few public school programs today may confine their offerings to education for the foreign-born, vocational retraining, or hobby-type classes. But important as these programs are, they no longer typify the solid, community-centered adult education program. Increasingly, the public school's adult program is forming a partnership with the school's child-and-youth program so that learners of all ages can have some effective measure of control over their homes—and communities—in which they all live. □

TEACHER OPINION POLL

Should Teachers Strike?

☐ **The proportion of public school** teachers who think it is all right for teachers to strike has risen dramatically over the past five years. Today, nearly 3 in 4 teachers believe that in at least some circumstances teachers should strike. In 1965, only about half the teachers held this opinion.

At intervals during the past five years, the NEA Research Division's Teacher Opinion Poll has asked a nationwide sample of public school classroom teachers, "Do you believe public school teachers should ever strike?" Possible responses included: (a) yes, the same as employees in other occupations; (b) yes, but only under extreme conditions and after all other means have failed; (c) no, never; and (d) undecided.

	1965	1967	1968	1969	1970
Yes, same as other employees	3.3%	4.4%	8.8%	5.9%	10.0%
Yes, but only under extreme conditions	50.0	54.4	59.4	56.1	63.0
No, never	37.8	33.7	22.8	30.4	20.8
Undecided	8.9	7.5	9.0	7.7	6.2

The percentage of teachers answering "yes" increased sharply from 53 to 68 percent between 1965 and 1968. In 1969, it declined slightly to 62 percent; but in 1970 it rose again to 73 percent, exceeding the previous high of 1968. Consistently throughout the five-year period the majority of teachers has approved of striking only as an extreme measure. However, the percentage of teachers who believe they should strike the same as others has also increased over the five years.

The range of reasons for which teachers in general think a strike is justified has also widened over the past five years. The surveys of 1965, 1968, and 1970 gave teachers the same list of possible reasons for strikes and asked those who believed in striking to indicate for each whether or not they thought a strike was justified. By 1970, at least 7 in 10 of those teachers who approved of striking said they thought strikes were justified to remedy unsafe conditions for pupils; to obtain higher salaries; to achieve satisfactory teaching conditions, such as reasonable class size; to improve the instructional program; or to obtain a negotiation agreement with the school board. In 1965, with the exception of the remedy of unsafe conditions for pupils, none of these reasons was rated justified by more than about 6 in 10 teachers.

Most of the change in teachers' opinions about justifiable reasons for striking occurred between 1965 and 1968. Although there has been no significant decrease during the last two years in the percentage of teachers rating any of the listed reasons justified, increases between 1968 and 1970 have generally been smaller.

Men teachers have consistently shown a more favorable attitude to strikes than women. In all the surveys, a much higher percentage of men than of women indicated that they thought teachers should strike. However, acceptance of strikes has increased at about the same rate among both men and women. In the case of men, most of the increase has occurred in the category of those who believe teachers should strike the same as other employees. For women, the change has occurred primarily in the category of those who think teachers should strike only under extreme conditions.

	Men		Women	
	1965	1970	1965	1970
Yes, same as other employees	6.3%	17.7%	1.7%	6.1%
Yes, but only under extreme conditions	59.0	68.8	45.3	60.1
No, never	29.4	10.6	42.2	25 9
Undecided	5.3	2.9	10.8	7.9

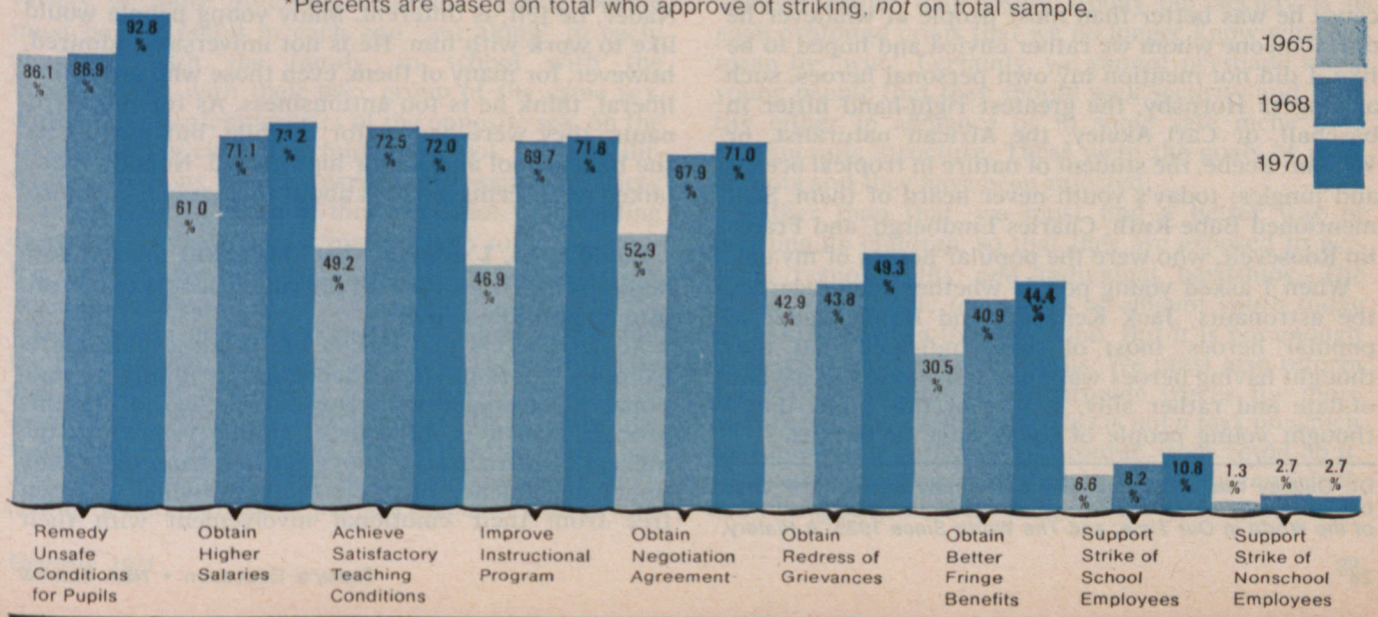
In regard to reasons for striking, opinions of men and women teachers have not differed significantly on remedying unsafe conditions for pupils or achieving satisfactory teaching conditions. For almost all of the other reasons listed, a significantly higher percentage of men than of women thinks strikes justified. The difference of opinion between men and women is most noticeable in the case of strikes to obtain higher salaries, to obtain redress of grievances, or to secure improved fringe benefits. The difference between the opinions of men and women teachers in regard to striking for better fringe benefits has increased in the past two years. The percentage of men who believe a strike for this reason justified has risen from 45 percent in 1968 to 54 percent in 1970, while the percentage of women holding this opinion has remained about the same (38 percent in 1968 and 37 percent in 1970).

Regional differences in opinions about whether teachers should strike, seen in earlier surveys, have almost completely disappeared in 1970. However, analysis of data by types of community shows that a higher percentage of rural than urban or suburban teachers continues to oppose strikes.

—NEA Research Division.

PURPOSES OF TEACHER STRIKES: PERCENTS OF TEACHERS BELIEVING STRIKE JUSTIFIED, 1965, 1968 AND 1970*

*Percents are based on total who approve of striking, *not* on total sample.



YOU MAY NOT AGREE BUT...

Youth's Heroes Have No Haloes

says **CARROLL QUIGLEY,** *professor of history, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C.*

□ **A significant aspect of the current revolt of Amer**ican youth is their confused attitudes about heroes, nonheroes, and antiheroes. Traditionally, young people have had heroes. In my generation, these heroes were winners; they were patterns for emulation. But they were also regarded as representatives of our society and our way of life. Simply by being so good, they showed that our society was good because it could produce such winners. We often wanted to emulate our heroes, but, whether we wanted to copy them or not, we admired them—and identified with them. Today, all that has changed.

When I began asking today's young people about their heroes, my first impression was that they didn't have any. My questions often brought another question: "What do you mean by *hero?*" I tried to explain what the idea of the hero had meant to my generation: someone bigger than life, who was a great success because he was better than most people at whatever he did, someone whom we rather envied and hoped to be like. I did not mention my own personal heroes, such as Rogers Hornsby, the greatest right-hand hitter in baseball, or Carl Akeley, the African naturalist, or William Beebe, the student of nature in tropical oceans and jungles; today's youth never heard of them. So I mentioned Babe Ruth, Charles Lindbergh, and Franklin Roosevelt, who were the popular heroes of my day.

When I asked young people whether they regarded the astronauts, Jack Kennedy, and Ralph Nader as popular heroes, most of them indicated that they thought having heroes was an old-fashioned idea—out-of-date and rather silly. It was at this point that I thought young people of today have no heroes.

Dr. Quigley has written numerous scholarly articles and three books—*Evolution of Civilizations; Tragedy and Hope: A History of the World in Our Time;* and *The World Since 1939: A History.*

But as I continued to question, my impression changed. I began to see that they do have heroes, but their heroes are losers rather than winners and these nonheroes come and go so rapidly that there are new ones every few months or even every week.

One young man, more articulate than most, tried to help me out of my difficulty: "The young people I know admire a guy who's good at what he tries to do, but we never expect him to be always winning or to become number one or to reach his goal. We think that the whole business is too confused or too crooked for even a good man to make it and be himself. The hero, if you want to call him that, for us is someone who wins for a while, then he is smashed down, and when he looks back at what happened, he thinks it wasn't worth his effort or sacrifice. Some young people idealized Che Guevara, because they felt his life was like that."

This young man saw Jack Kennedy and Gene McCarthy as heroes of this sort, but said that *most* young people of today, no longer give them much thought. Nader, he felt, is different. Many young people would like to work with him. He is not universally admired, however, for many of them, even those who are rather liberal, think he is too antibusiness. As for the astronauts, they were heroes for a while, but mostly for the high school and junior high crowd. Nobody that I talked with seems to think about them much anymore.

Could it be, I wonder, that this trend toward antiheroes is making it difficult for young people to mature into responsible adults?

Adolescence is the time in life when a child shifts from his emotional dependence on his family to emotional involvement with the outside world. In this process, which is, of course, closely related to the process of sexualization, boys get free from their emotional dependence on their mothers, while girls get free from their emotional involvement with their

fathers. In both cases, this used to be achieved by the adolescent's getting involved emotionally, though usually not personally, with an older male. (The two cases are quite different, but I have space to touch chiefly on the boy.) The involvement occurred at a distance, mostly through daydreaming, and fantasy.

This is where the hero came in. The boy used to find a model on whom he could pattern his developing personality. Through imagination and daydreaming, the boy saw himself acting as he had seen his hero acting. Eventually, he outgrew that particular hero and moved on to the next stage of his growth, retaining those patterns that seemed to serve his needs and gradually giving up those that he discovered were not what he really wanted. In this process, he gradually matured as a unique personality.

Today, young people not only have antiheroes; they also have weak imaginations and no time for daydreaming. The world that their elders have built for them has killed both imagination and the leisure to dream. Today, imagination has slim chance to develop because everything is made too explicit to permit its growth. And adults are now so fearful that preadolescents and adolescents will be bored and thus get into mischief that they fill young peoples' lives with distractions—not recognizing that distractions are the chief creators of boredom and mischief. As a result, the lives of our young are so filled with noise, confusion, and activity that they are never left alone or bored enough to fall back on daydreaming. Our young are now so accustomed to tumult that they insist on drowning out both daydreaming and imagination, seeking to escape from themselves and their loneliness in noise, confusion, other people, and activities.

As a result, they remain immature, still driven by hang-ups centered on their parents, and with a retarded achievement of personal autonomy and personal responsibility. Some never develop an integrated personality. Instead, they are simply a collection of roles that they use as the situation requires.

Today our middle-class way of life, at home and at school, is aimed at training youth to adapt to a variety of quite different situations. Young people must be successful in each and "get along" in each: at home with the family, in school with the "system," out with their peer group of the same sex, dating their contemporaries of the opposite sex, on the sports field, in church or Sunday school. In these different situations, they are expected to assume a variety of roles, which fit each of these situations. Depending on where they are, adults expect them to be cooperative, competitive, submissive, dominant, self-assertive, or group-centered.

Most young people become quite adept at playing their roles and at switching quickly to the appropriate one. They find security in doing what is expected of them in any situation. But what are they really like when they are alone and all these dramatic masks are off? Frequently they find themselves engulfed by a feeling of nothingness, of purposelessness. That is why so many young never want to be alone. They unconsciously recognize the truth: However successful they may be in deceiving others, they cannot fool themselves. They recognize that their lives lack purpose. Most young people want to be secure, to be noticed, to win approval, to be loved. But how can they be secure when their security depends on externals that can be lost so easily or when they get into situations where they must protect themselves with conflicting roles or find themselves naked with none that fits?

In their desperate search for identity and purpose they may find what they seek in hatred, aggression, or violence, rather than in love. They may find identity in attracting attention by outrageous conduct or by merging their personalities into a group-identity. Members of such groups may coalesce on the basis of what they oppose rather than on what they support, by a solid front in opposition to parents; to school or university; to the establishment, the Pentagon, or the police. For such persons, it becomes easier to find meaning in group action rather than by having personal relationships on a one-to-one basis.

Today many middle-class youths are in this situation: seeking identity and emotional experience, not in specific relations of one growing personality with another, but in revolt, group submergence, and irrational activism. They rationalize their feelings and actions in terms of ideals: They claim they are striving for selflessness, reform, love, and truth.

Certainly our society is badly organized and needs reform. But today's youth has little desire to analyze, study, plan, and reform in the only way possible: that is gradually and imperfectly, just as individual personalities capable of such reform must grow gradually and imperfectly. Today's disturbed youth has no use for either the gradual or the imperfect, and this means they have no use for life as it is. Instead, they seek life by acting roles, in charades, against symbols that stand, not for specific wrongs that could be corrected, but for whole systems that must be destroyed.

It would be no solution to this pervasive problem to try to get young people to adopt better heroes, winners rather than losers. Today our society is in such profound crisis that we no longer know what we mean by "win." Certainly, we cannot persuade many young people that they should seek security and identity either in affluence or in some safe niche in a bureaucratic structure. These were the goals of their parents and they have been rejected.

Rather than that, we must find a better way of bringing up children, so that they are exposed to personal responsibility and individual hardships. The rather masochistic tendencies of affluent youth today could be turned in that direction. But it is not enough to develop more mature youths. We must also reform our society so that it will provide places for more mature persons to function. This is not a task on which we can be very optimistic. Of course, if we could do it, we wouldn't need to worry about the heroes on which our young people model their lives. □

financing education in the 70$

HUGH CALKINS, *attorney, Jones, Day, Cockley, and Reavis, Cleveland; chairman, National Advisory Council on Vocational Education.*

□ **The overriding problem in American education today** is to develop a means by which the 20 percent of our population who are excluded from the mainstream of American life can acquire the educational level they must achieve to enter it. To accomplish this will require many changes, but four of the most important ones are in the field of school finance.

first

• First we must restore equity to our school foundation laws. Forty-five years ago Strayer and Haig devised the first foundation formulas so that the burden of school support would "bear upon the people in all localities at the same rate in relation to their tax-paying abilities." Today, because of changes in society, the old formulas produce, not equality, but the rankest inequality.

This inequity arises from our persistent failure to recognize that education represents only a part of the cost of local government. In Philadelphia, for example, police, fire, sanitation, and other urban services consume 70 percent of revenues, while in the city's suburbs those services use only 40 percent of revenues.

School foundation laws typically determine "wealth" on the basis of property tax base per pupil without adjusting the figure for municipal overburden. This made sense 40 years ago when the tax base per pupil was much higher in the cities than elsewhere, but it is grossly unfair today because the tax base in our cities has been so eroded that it is no higher than in surrounding communities. The contrast between Boston, with a total local tax rate of 144 mills and a per pupil expenditure of $655, and its suburb, Weston, with a total local tax rate of 43 mills and a per pupil expenditure of $956, is enough to make Strayer and Haig rise from their graves in indignation. Pennsylvania, Michigan, and New York have devised adjustments that take into account municipal overburden. All older industrialized states should follow their example.

Another inequity in state school finance arises from our tolerance of tax havens. For example, the tax base in Hudson and in Compton City in Los Angeles County is only one-fortieth as much as that of the nearby Gorman school district. School finance experts have long recommended that property taxes be collected statewide; it is inexcusable to ignore their recommendation any longer.

Another step toward equity is to equalize valuations. Throughout the state of Michigan, the range of assessed to market value is from 10 to 40 percent. Is it any wonder that Michigan children do not have equal educational opportunity? Wisconsin, Maryland, and Florida have equalization formulas that work; all the other states should adopt similar rulings.

Another major inequality in foundation laws is that, in all but four states, the laws provide state financial assistance to poorer districts only up to the minimum level established by the state. For example, in a poor school district in Ohio, it costs about $60 per family to increase teachers' salaries by $1,000, while in an average one, the same increase can be provided by an average tax contribution of $25 per family. If Ohio wants to achieve equal educational opportunity for all and to encourage local effort in school support, it should promptly follow the handful of progressive states in which local effort above the minimum is matched by state support under an equalizing formula.

second

• The second cornerstone in developing a rational system of school finance is to adopt a sensible philosophy of broad categorical grants. Not all children can be educated for the same amount of money. For example, it costs more to provide adequate education for a child who is blind, deaf, or seriously emotionally disturbed than for a so-called normal child.

Mr. Calkins spoke at greater length on this topic at the National Education Association Finance Conference in San Francisco on April 5, 1970.

Popularly elected governments at local levels are under great pressures for uniformity. Where resources are in short supply, the most easily defensible position is to allocate the same amount of money for every child. In contrast, it is not always easy to justify the expenditure of more dollars on the child with special needs than on the average child.

Champions of local decision making, therefore, should welcome the efforts of state and federal governments to subsidize the additional costs of special education. The effect of such subsidies is to equalize the local per pupil cost of meeting each child's needs.

Whenever possible, funds should be allocated on the basis of the child to be served, rather than the program to be carried out, since such a basis for allocation avoids the necessity of separating the child with the special needs. Children who are physically handicapped or who cannot read can be identified and counted; new methods will enable us to identify them earlier than we have in the past. The local expenditures made for their education can be monitored to protect the categorical funds from being substituted for local funds that are diverted for other uses. ESEA Title I is in this respect a good model to follow.

When a subsidy is based on a program, on the other hand, the subsidy tends to create separateness. Such separateness is prevalent in vocational education today. Although many educators believe that the way to teach reading to high school students who are poor readers is in job-related programs, few schools offer such programs. The reason is bureaucratic convenience. The state subsidizes vocational classes, but does not provide funds for remedial instruction for high school students who are poor readers. The two cannot be mixed without confusing the accounting.

The sensible philosophy of broad categorical grants that we need to adopt will make such distortions a thing of the past. A school district should be allowed a subsidy if it shows that it is spending a more than average amount of money on children with special needs and is fulfilling those needs. Private accounting and testing firms can be called on to verify the expenditures and the achievement of these children. Such a system would at last give local school systems the freedom, with accountability, to provide special educational programs to meet the individual needs of pupils.

third

• The third requirement for reform is the adoption of a federal income tax for education.

In the sixties, educators were quick to recognize and to urge that additional taxation on the state and local levels was necessary to provide adequate education. In the last 10 years, the increases have been impressive. Local taxes for education, which yielded $8 billion in 1960, yield $20.3 billion today. State taxes for education, which yielded $5.5 billion in 1960, yield $15.6 billion today. In the period 1960-69, the state and local tax burden increased from 8 to 10 percent of GNP—an increase of 25 percent.

In state after state and city after city, the additional tax revenues resulting from the general growth in the tax base were used to finance the cost of police and fire departments, mental health programs, economic development, and welfare programs, while a new tax was proposed to support the growing needs of education. Although no new state individual or corporate income or sales taxes were introduced in the fifties, 28 such new taxes were enacted in the sixties.

At the federal level, however, the scene has been different. Three times in the last 10 years Congress has enjoyed the luxury of granting citizens a tax cut. Federal tax revenues increased only 12½ percent as a percent of GNP, compared with the state and local increase of 25.

It is extraordinary that taxpayers who struggle to pay additional property and sales taxes at the local level applaud, rather than condemn, the Congress for its consistent reluctance to increase the fairest tax of them all—the federal income tax. The reason is not hard to find. The federal income tax is associated in the taxpayer's mind with a whole host of services that he may not want. Those who oppose the Vietnam war see the tax as contributing to the war effort; those who live on farms see it as maintaining urban projects; city dwellers view it as sustaining a farm subsidy.

A federal income tax earmarked for education could avoid this problem. Many say the major achievement of the Eisenhower Administration was the initiation of a federal highway program, funded primarily by a gasoline tax. This program spearheaded a spectacular growth in the nation's highways. It is as fitting that education be supported by a tax on income as it is that highways be supported by one on gasoline. The relationship between education and income is beyond question.

What kind of a federal program should be supported by a federal education tax? We have learned some hard lessons in the sixties, and we had better apply them in the seventies.

One lesson has already been discussed: A federal program should contain properly drafted categorical grants under which the federal government will pay a part of the extra cost of the special education that some children require. Prominent among these grants should be increasing assistance for disadvantaged children. The $1.2 billion now provided is not nearly enough to fill the needs of these children.

Another lesson of the sixties is that states with a per capita or a per pupil income below the national average must have an equalizing grant. There is no justification for relying purely on state and local taxes to finance education in a nation in which the poor states have about half the per capita income of the rich ones.

The experience of the sixties should teach us still another lesson: A properly designed federal program will offer some financial assistance for the education

of the average child in the average community, as well as for the child with a special problem or the one from a poverty area. A good federal program will provide compensatory subsidies for those who need them, a measure of equalization for poor states, and a measure of assistance for all.

Congress can enact a National Education Act. The Act will not be inflationary if it is funded at $3 billion and financed by a 4 percent surcharge on individual income taxes paid on incomes up to $15,000 and a 7 percent surcharge on individual income taxes paid on income above that level.

fourth • The fourth objective in school finance is that we learn to use competition constructively and fairly.

Those who believe in the principle of competition and seek evidence to support its validity need only look at some aspects of American education. Private universities vie with each other and with state universities; two-year colleges compete with four-year colleges; boarding schools vie with private day schools and with public high schools in affluent suburbs. Parochial secondary schools seek the ablest graduates of the parochial elementary school system. Competition is the law of the land not only in schools of higher education but also in the elementary and secondary schools in affluent areas, and the education these institutions provide is generally excellent.

However, the public elementary and secondary schools in the less affluent areas are in a noncompetitive situation. Low-income families are trapped—sometimes by the color of their skin, sometimes by the limitation of their income—in the schools in the districts in which they live. It is in these schools that educational failure is most serious.

Currently educators at every level show mounting interest in the use of competition to overcome educational failure. New types of schools have been developed to compete with the traditional public schools. The Philadelphia and Chicago public school systems operate schools without walls in which museums, factories, libraries, and other community facilities substitute for the conventional classroom. Street academies serve dropouts of the public school system in New York City. These and many other alternatives within and without the public school system need encouragement and support.

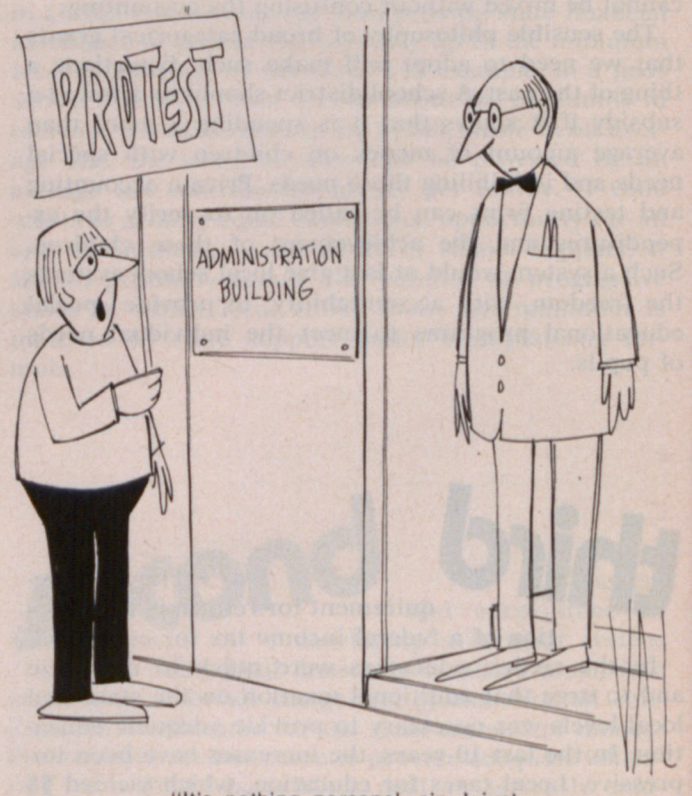
Yet there is a danger. All too often a device designed to help the disadvantaged turns out to be a technique by which the privileged make more secure the privileges they already enjoy.

Four states have already adopted legislation under which state funds are used to pay the salaries of teachers in parochial and independent schools. We must be careful not to create a school system in which middle- and upper-class children enjoy superior education at a mixture of public and private expense, while children from families in the bottom half of the income spectrum attend public schools of rapidly declining quality.

This is not a fanciful danger. In my opinion, a coalition of those who seek competition for the disadvantaged through a voucher system, those who believe that untrammeled competition is as efficient in education as it is in business, those who are determined that their children shall not attend schools with youngsters of another color, and those who sincerely believe in the virtues of a religious education can create a political force that could do more to defeat equality of educational opportunity than anything on the American scene since the Supreme Court approved the "separate but equal" rule. [Plessy *v.* Ferguson-1896.]

Such a coalition can be defeated only by a painstaking demonstration that competition can be achieved where it is needed without an undifferentiated subsidy for parochial and independent education and by constant reminders that equal subsidies to children of unequal wealth can lead to unequal opportunity.

These then are the four cornerstones for school finance reform. In pursuing them, we need one quality above all others—endurance. No reform in school finance will come quickly; little that is worthwhile ever does. So let us make equality of educational opportunity our goal and pursue that goal with doggedness and determination. □



"It's nothing personal, sir. I just don't want to be guilty of apathy."

ENLIVENING THE PUBLICATIONS CLASS

JO ANN JENNINGS, *former teacher of English and publications, St. Charles, Missouri; now of West Des Moines, Iowa.*

□ **I recommend adding a little extra excitement to a** publications class. If there isn't any news, make some! For example, here's one way to handle on-the-spot news.

First, divide the class into groups of three or four students. Each group has two weeks to plan an on-the-spot news happening—a robbery or a car accident, for example—to perform for the class. Students prepare scripts, design costumes, and collect the necessary props. They will enjoy injecting as much humor as possible into their stories.

The class then sees each news event as it happens, after which, students become reporters, getting their stories from eyewitnesses. Obviously, such witnesses don't always give the same—or even accurate—facts. Reporters have practice in asking important questions, writing stories, and in noting possible gaps between what actually took place and the way the event is described.

In handling interviews, ask each student to choose a partner. One of the pair then becomes a famous person, the other a news reporter.

The reporter shows the class how he goes about getting an appointment with a well-known person. He then interviews his subject with prepared questions, later writing a feature story summing up the newsworthy information he gathered.

When all the interviews are completed, the students in each team exchange roles.

A campaign for class president offers another interesting project. A class may profitably spend about two weeks on this activity. Reporters cover the campaign and write up their reports. Posters, buttons, and speeches add to the excitement.

After the vote is taken, whoever is elected president is told to keep up with the news for about a week and to form his opinions on current problems. Other class members also follow the news closely and write out questions to ask the winning candidate. My students have always done an amazing job of falling into the spirit of this project; they really put their "president" to work.

"Stand for something! Don't just exist." I believe in emphasizing this idea with students.

Last year my publications class spent five weeks on an all-out campaign against drugs. Two of my students worked with a local narcotics agent, gathering any information he might be willing to offer. We went from the subject of drugs to pollution, and my students were eager to take an active part in celebrations for Earth Day.

My students did a great job when asked to prepare newspapers dealing with the present, the future, or even the deep, dark past *(The Caveman Chronicle).* Their writings included news stories, features, cartoons, and advertising. To do this, of course, they had to consider the entire structure and content of a newspaper.

Publications also offer many bulletin board ideas. A class may start out by putting up colorful magazine covers, categorizing them into topics, such as sports, news, and hobbies. Students may also display samples of everything found in a newspaper—news items, feature stories, columns, ads, and so on.

My classes always enjoyed writing "Letters to the Editor," and students took turns preparing constructive answers to these letters. Sometimes they were able to see holes in arguments that formerly made sense to them.

When teaching the meaning of *yellow journalism,* I had nearly everyone in the class turn his desk around and hide his face. Then, a few students made various noises and sound effects. Asked to write about what they had heard, most listeners sensationalized. Instead of simply describing the noises, they wrote about all sorts of wild things. Later, they had reason to stop and think as they evaluated what they had written. Still later, they stopped calling yellow journalism *old newsprint* on tests.

A courtroom trial was an interesting and successful project carried on by one of my classes. We planned the crime, chose a judge, and appointed attorneys—always careful to be as realistic as possible.

Members of the class who did not have speaking parts to prepare covered the trial proceedings. If you have any doubts about the young people in America, this exercise is a good way to give your spirits a boost.

The ideas outlined in this article solved my problem of what to do with 68 students, no textbooks, and not enough work for all on the school newspaper and yearbook. Only a few members of the class failed to participate. In fact, the only real problem we encountered was in having parents question how a child could be graded fairly when he hadn't clung to a textbook or spent his time answering questions at the end of a chapter. □

FACTS ABOUT DRUGS

Name	Slang Name	Chemical or Trade Name	Source	Classification	Medical Use	How Taken
Heroin	H., Horse, Scat, Junk, Smack, Scag, Stuff, Harry	Diacetyl-morphine	Semi-synthetic (from morphine)	Narcotic	Pain relief	Injected or sniffed
Morphine	White Stuff, M.	Morphine Sulphate	Natural (from opium)	Narcotic	Pain relief	Swallowed or injected
Codeine	Schoolboy	Methylmorphine	Natural (from opium), Semi-synthetic (from morphine)	Narcotic	Ease pain and coughing	Swallowed
Methadone	Dolly	Dolophine Amidone	Synthetic	Narcotic	Pain relief	Swallowed or injected
Cocaine	Corrine, Gold Dust, Coke, Bernice, Flake, Star Dust, Snow	Methylester of Benzoylecgonine	Natural (from coca, NOT cacao)	Stimulant, local anesthesia	Local anesthesia	Sniffed, injected, or swallowed
Marijuana	Pot, Grass, Hashish, Tea, Gage, Reefers	Cannabis Sativa	Natural	Relaxant, euphoriant; in high doses, hallucinogen	None in U.S.	Smoked, swallowed, or sniffed
Barbiturates	Barbs, Blue Devils, Candy, Yellow Jackets, Phennies, Peanuts, Blue Heavens	Phenobarbital Nembutal, Seconal, Amytal	Synthetic	Sedative-hypnotic	Sedation, relief of high blood pressure, epilepsy, hyperthyroidism	Swallowed or injected
Amphetamines	Bennies, Dexies, Speed, Wake-Ups, Lid Proppers, Hearts, Pep Pills	Benzedrine, Dexedrine, Desoxyn, Methamphetamine, Methedrine	Synthetic	Sympathomimetic	Relief of mild depression, control of appetite and narcolepsy	Swallowed or injected
LSD	Acid, Sugar, Big D, Cubes, Trips	D-lysergic Acid Diethylamide	Semi-synthetic (from ergot alkaloids)	Hallucinogen	Experimental study of mental function, alcoholism	Swallowed
DMT	AMT, Businessman's High	Dimethyl-triptamine	Synthetic	Hallucinogen	None	Injected
Mescaline	Mesc.	3,4,5-trimethoxy-phenethylamine	Natural (from peyote)	Hallucinogen	None	Swallowed
Psilocybin		3 (2-dimethyl-amino) Ethylin-dol-4-oldihydro-gen Phosphate	Natural (from psilocybe)	Hallucinogen	None	Swallowed
Alcohol	Booze, Juice, etc.	Ethanol Ethyl Alcohol	Natural (from grapes, grains, etc. via fermentation)	Sedative hypnotic	Solvent, antiseptic	Swallowed
Tobacco	Fag, Coffin Nail, etc.	Nicotiana Tabacum	Natural	Stimulant-sedative	Sedative, emetic (nicotine)	Smoked, sniffed, chewed

Source: *Resource Book for Drug Abuse Education.* Developed as a part of the Drug Abuse Education Project of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation and the National Science Teachers Association (NEA). 1969. 117 pp. $1.25. Quantity discounts. Order from NEA Publications-Sales. Additional information is available from AAHPER, NEA Center.

(Question marks indicate conflict of opinion. It should be noted that illicit drugs are frequently adulterated and thus pose unknown hazards to the user.)

Usual Dose	Duration of Effect	Effects Sought	Long-Term Symptoms	Physical Dependence Potential	Mental Dependence Potential	Organic Damage Potential
Varies	4 hrs.	Euphoria, prevent withdrawal discomfort	Addiction, constipation, loss of appetite	Yes	Yes	No*
15 Milligrams	6 hrs.	Euphoria, prevent withdrawal discomfort	Addiction, constipation, loss of appetite	Yes	Yes	No*
30 Milligrams	4 hrs.	Euphoria, prevent withdrawal discomfort	Addiction, constipation, loss of appetite	Yes	Yes	No
10 Milligrams	4-6 hrs.	Prevent withdrawal discomfort	Addiction, constipation, loss of appetite	Yes	Yes	No
Varies	Varied, brief periods	Excitation, talkativeness	Depression, convulsions	No	Yes	Yes?
1-2 Cigarettes	4 hrs.	Relaxation; increased euphoria, perceptions, sociability	Usually none	No	Yes?	No
50-100 Milligrams	4 hrs.	Anxiety reduction, euphoria	Addiction with severe withdrawal symptoms, possible convulsions, toxic psychosis	Yes	Yes	Yes
2.5-5 Milligrams	4 hrs.	Alertness, activeness	Loss of appetite, delusions, hallucinations, toxic psychosis	No?	Yes	Yes?
100-500 Micrograms	10 hrs.	Insightful experiences, exhilaration, distortion of senses	May intensify existing psychosis, panic reactions	No	No?	No?
1-3 Milligram	Less than 1 hr.	Insightful experiences, exhilaration, distortion of senses	?	No	No?	No?
350 Micrograms	12 hrs.	Insightful experiences, exhilaration, distortion of senses	?	No	No?	No?
25 Milligrams	6-8 hrs.	Insightful experiences, exhilaration, distortion of senses	?	No	No?	No?
Varies	1-4 hrs.	Sense alteration, anxiety reduction, sociability	Cirrhosis, toxic psychosis, neurologic damage, addiction	Yes	Yes	Yes
Varies	Varies	Calmness, sociability	Emphysema, lung cancer, mouth and throat cancer, cardiovascular damage, loss of appetite	Yes?	Yes	Yes

*Persons who inject drugs under nonsterile conditions run a high risk of contracting hepatitis, abscesses, or circulatory disorders.

RETURN

HELEN G. SEVERS, *teacher of English, Palisades High School, Kintnersville, Pennsylvania.*

It was almost
April.
"She hasn't spoken once."
A lead fist struck
my quailing heart.
Never? Never. Since September.

Silent as stone she sat
quiet, in the swirling
life around her. Gray
like a small woods snail:
hair, dress, shoes,
soul.
Withdrawn, only a hint of a
being there.
But a faith persists that a
being
waits to come forth.

Fresh clean faces,
vibrant bodies decked lovingly
in vivid colors—crisp dresses,
neat shorts, bright shoes—
Delight sprang up wherever my
glance joined
blue, gray, brown glances.
Secret, behind the delight, my inner
sight kept seeing her. Imperative,
vocal of neglect, vacancy,
lovelessness—
The eyes, above all. Hope had retreated
forever and with it that indefinable
color of
life and joy.

Resolution forms in secrecy,
unknown to the
resolver's will.
And suddenly, or slowly,
action,
that stealthy one,
declares itself:
She must not remain lost
in that rapt despair.
Somehow, life must offer an irresistible
invitation.

For a space let her
remain as she was going on
in this high-ceilinged, brown
cavern of unavailingness.
Yet let her sense an uninsistent
current
tugging her toward us.

Manifestly unaware, I circled around
her, seeming to pay no heed.
You don't approach a timid
creature head on; you let it
come to you
by an oblique pattern,
casually.
And finally you are
there
close
in a nearness perfectly
natural.

Having recently come myself from
an almost miraculous hand's
remaking, I was in the
mood for miracles.

And a miracle happened: the cavernites,
at first hesitating,
took my frail effort into their
nourishing hands and made it grow.
They rescued her selfhood.

Uncelebrated, that occasion, yet
eternally commemorated.

It began with thrusting aside
of unimagination and
unexpectation:
"Miss G, *she* can't read!"

Unanimous scorn dropped her
into the world's
garbage can
without grief;
it was merely a fact of
life, demanding no
concern.

"Oh, but she *can*!"

By what untraceable
path did "can"
course down my
arm and
flow to her frail, touched shoulder
and then—where?
In some hidden encounter,
"can" defied "cannot" and
out came a pale
voice speaking
SPEAKING!
each word after the leading voice
(even once of itself
speaking a monosyllable, unled).

Awe prickled through the brown
cavern, spellbound before the
stupendous.
No one uttered a
sound.

The silence spoke.

A little while the magic proceeded
unevenly and then the
blessed victim rested.
(Did Lazarus, do you suppose,
suffer a profound fatigue from all
that wonderment?)

The miracle moves out;
alights on each one.
It hovers.
it warms
it circles
it marks us
draws us into the center.
Its center becomes
our center;
we are the miracle.
It happens
and we do not question

This poem won second prize ($500) in the 1970 Teachers' Writing Competition.

a mystery, unseen but
certain, that enfolds us.

Freed from ourselves we are
ungreedy,
giving
at last.

In a more thoughtful time comes an
epiphany and the source is
revealed
A presence bends upon me,
a lost face.
A new paradigm appears:
She loved
I love
You love.

"New shoes, new shoes
black, and white, and blue shoes."
Thirty-six voices are making
one sound, one motion
chanting
swaying.
The sound encircles you.
You swing your arms,
you stamp your feet,
you toss happiness
to the cavern's ceiling.
It shatters into
a million glorious
splinters;
they bounce off the
floor and walls in a dazzle of
pure life.
You shake your head—
your head? his? hers?
There is no you, no he, no she.
You are one.

On the floor stood a woven
basket, large, brown, meant for
laundry.
Beings one held, carried, and
addressed with affection, derision,
admonition rested inside:
a ginger-colored bear with blue
polka-dotted tie that
required to be tied and
retied,
the rounded unreality of a
baby perfectly formed down
to each improbable eyelash,
an incredibly wigged girl doll
a sturdy-limbed boy—an imp
of rags.

Translate them to paint?
Impossible!
All struggled with the intransigent
ellipse of the basket and its texture
Despair!
The beings refused to stay inside: they
sprawled incorrigibly, idiotically
over the edge.
Impudent limbs sprang from the
paper, rejecting conquest;
these sham realists insisted on
the two dimensions of the picture
world and would have no more.

At last, exhausted, we stared
ferociously joyful
and triumphant at the magnificent
failures that grinned or scowled back
knowingly from the paper.

"We do not teach spelling because—"
but they *would* spell!
Ignorant of "psychological
principles" that barred them
from learning,
they learned.
She learned, because they taught her.
By which method? Who knows?

She learned, swept on
by the concourse of willing.
With fierce joy they brought her at last
into their triumphal procession:
Out the door
With Drums
Up the stairs
With Trumpets
Into the Office
With a Flourish.
We look the world in its inscrutable
face,
unbeaten
unbeatable.

Teach-ins?
We held them!
Back from lunch with
fifteen blissful minutes to squander
in whimsy,
clusters of five or six circled
close their chairs around the
"TEACHER"
counted—laughed
read—laughed
spelled—laughed
lived—laughed.
Urged and supported by
their infinite wiles,
she counted—and contemplated
the laughers
she read—and considered laughter
she spelled—and resolved to laugh
she lived—and laughed
How could she do otherwise?

Art is the revelation of something
Unseen and Unknown except to
the artist.
She was the supreme artist:
she revealed to us a new
world—
hers.
It was always black and luridly
violet;
it had no form
but it was not
void.
It was raw nerves striking out in
jagged motions
against that which was unnamed.
The marks on the paper
were merely
incidental—
pure feeling in graphic scars.

When she had struck enough,
she struck away
the blindfold and saw
the dolls, the page,
the puppy,
Us.

The puppy was the final portent:
One of these latchers-on-to-life
brought him to the brown
cavern as an art subject:
Small, short-haired, white with
black patches, he was
overwhelming in his totality.
We could hardly desecrate
his presence by attempting
a likeness.
But delight's next step is
doing, and out of the almost palpable
striving
gripping
biting
twisting
observing
stroking,
behold: a myriad of puppies—
lean ones, lopsided ones,
wasting-away ones
gluttons whose boundaries
overran the paper's edge,
sly and innocent-eyed,
with tails sometimes enlarged,
diminished, omitted.
But one, all cavernites avowed, was
puppyhood elucidated—
Hers.

May disperses its blown petals into the
green fragrance of June and
days of reckoning arrive even in
first grade.
"Evaluations"
by the unknown Miss
P (psychologist
most formidable) this
spring conducted
somewhere in a distant
solitude removed from the
familiar brown caverns.
One by one they were to go to
some remote region
above.

A game! We made a game of it.
Like quicksilver, a buoyant
redhead left the room.
She reentered, now Miss P—gracious,
mature, just a little distant.
We greeted sat performed departed
over and over blithely, the charade
becoming the act,
mastered and surpassed.

And so it was not only
as we vaguely hoped it to be
but as we
shaped and willed it:
she, too, a
gay goer and
returner. □

YOUR PERSONAL FINANCES

INCOME TAX

INFORMATION FOR TEACHERS

□ **In one way or another, all taxpayers are affected** by the changes made in the federal income tax laws by the Tax Reform Act of 1969. Some changes apply to the 1970 income tax return. Others become effective in future tax years, among them, higher personal and dependency exemptions and lower tax rates for single individuals and heads of households. The changes mean tax breaks in some respects and stricter rules in other respects. To avail yourself of tax saving, take time to examine the choices open to your personal situation.

Here are some of the changes you should be aware of as you begin your task of filling out your 1970 federal tax return on revamped Form 1040:

For 1970, personal and dependency exemptions have been raised to $625 each. The standard deduction remains at 10 percent of adjusted gross income with a ceiling of $1,000 ($500 each for married persons filing separately). The minimum standard deduction has been replaced by a new flat low-income allowance which for 1970 is $1,100 ($100 plus $100 for each exemption to a maximum of $500 for a married person filing separately). Income-averaging rules for persons with fluctuating income have been liberalized. If your income was increased substantially in 1970, look into the provisions (IRC 1954, secs. 1301-1302). Allowable deductions for charitable giving are higher. Treatment of capital gains and losses is extensively altered. Deductions for moving expenses have been expanded (more below).

Certain allowable exclusions and deductions for expenses connected with employment are of importance to teachers. This article will discuss these in brief and general terms. A check of appropriate sections of the tax laws and rulings is advised if you think an item mentioned concerns you. Bear in mind that you must be able to prove your expenditures with adequate records, or you may lose the deduction. Also, you may not deduct expenses for which you were reimbursed.

Educational Expense Deductions

If while working as a teacher in 1970, you attended summer or evening classes, workshops, or educational conferences, or if in 1970 you pursued full-time studies during temporary absence from teaching (whether or not on leave status), your expenses for education may be deductible as a business expense (IRC 1954, sec. 162; Reg. sec. 1.162-5 as amended May 2, 1967, by T.D. 6918; Rev. Rul. 68-591, 1968-2, CB 73; Form 2519).

A teacher who has met minimum educational requirements may deduct expenses for education, provided: (a) the education meets the express requirements imposed by the teacher's employer or by applicable law or regulations as a condition for retention of salary, status, or employment or (b) the education maintains or improves skills required of the teacher in his present employment.

If either of these two tests is met and the education does not come within the limitations mentioned next, the tax deduction may be claimed even if the studies lead to a degree, or result in a salary increase or career advancement.

Limitations. Expenses for education are nondeductible if incurred to meet minimum education required of a taxpayer for qualification in his present employment or if the education would qualify the taxpayer for a new trade or business. For income tax purposes, the minimum educational requirements for qualification as a teacher is the minimum level of education in terms of aggregate college hours or degree that is normally required of an individual in the same position.

To illustrate: Under the law in state X, beginning

teachers must have a bachelor's degree including 30 semester hours of professional education courses; in addition, to retain his position, the teacher must complete a fifth year of study within 10 years after being employed. Under these circumstances, the bachelor's degree is considered the minimum educational requirement. Thus, a teacher with a bachelor's degree may deduct the education expenses to satisfy the required semester hours of professional education courses. The expenses for the fifth year of study are also deductible unless the education qualifies the teacher for a new trade or business.

The present regulations expressly state that teaching and related duties are considered as involving the same general type of work and that a change in duties of a classroom teacher from one subject area or level to another, or from a classroom teacher to a guidance counselor or a principal is *not* a change to a new trade or business.

Travel as education. Teachers' expenditures for travel as a form of education (including travel while on sabbatical leave) are deductible to the extent that the expenditures are attributable to the period of travel that is "directly related" to the teacher's school duties. Travel is "directly related" only if the major portion of the activities during the travel period directly maintains and improves skills required by the teacher in his employment. Whether or not these tests have been met turns on the facts involved. The school employer's approval or acceptance of the travel program in fulfillment of requirements is not determinative that the required relationship exists.

The traveling teacher and IRS do not always agree on entitlement to the tax deduction for educational travel. Of interest is a recent decision of the Tax Court which reversed the IRS and ruled that a world history teacher who traveled through France, visiting historical sites and taking and collecting slides and other materials for use in her classes, was entitled to deduct her expenses. The court held that the travel was of such a nature as to directly maintain and improve her skills as a history teacher. However, her Latin teacher husband failed to meet the test and was not entitled to deduct his travel expenses for the same trip (*S. and E. Marlin*, 54 T.C. No. 49 (1970); acquiescence by Commissioner of Internal Revenue, 9/21/70, I.R.B. 1970-38, 5).

How to deduct education expenses. Tuition, books, supplies, and similar items are deductible on Schedule A, Form 1040, but *only* if you itemize deductions. You may not deduct these items if you take the standard deduction or use a tax table. Travel expenses to obtain education, including transportation (but not commuting expenses), tolls, parking fees, and meals and lodging while you are away from home overnight, are deductible whether you itemize deductions, take the standard deduction, or use a tax table. Deduct these items in Part III, page 2, Form 1040.

Other Deductions

Other employment-connected items may be deducted as a business expense in Part III, p. 2, Form 1040 even if you do not itemize deductions. These are:

1. Travel expenses to professional meetings and conventions.

2. Automobile expenses incurred for school business (but not commuting between home and school). You may either allocate the operating and fixed costs —gasoline, oil, repairs, depreciation, etc.—attributable to the business use of the car and claim these expenses as a deduction, or you may use the standard mileage rate of 12¢ per mile for the first 15,000 miles of business use and 9¢ per mile thereafter.

3. Moving expenses. If you moved your residence because you went to work for another school system, you may deduct the cost of your move if two conditions are met: (a) the distance to your new place of work must be at least 50 miles greater from your *old* residence than the distance from your former place of work to your old residence, and (b) you must be a full-time employee for at least 39 weeks during the 12-month period immediately following your arrival in the new area. Deductible expenses are the reasonable cost of moving your household goods and personal effects, and travel costs (including meals and lodging) for yourself and your family, plus the following three new items, limited to a total of $2,500, with no more than $1,000 combined for the first two:

- cost of house-hunting trip after obtaining employment at the new location
- temporary living expenses up to 30 days at the new work location
- certain costs of selling and buying a home.

If the 39-week test has not been met by the due date of your 1970 return but will be later, you may deduct the moving expenses on that return or leave it off and file for a refund in 1971. However, if you took the deduction in 1970 and the test later fails, you must report the amount as income in 1971. Attach Form 3903. (IRC 1954, sec. 217; Reg. sec. 1.217-1).

Some other items may be deductible as business expenses of an employee, but *only* if you itemize deductions. These are:

1. Fees paid to an employment agency for having secured employment (Rev. Rul. 60-223, 1960-1 CB 57).

2. Membership dues to professional organizations, including NEA and its state and local affiliates. Cost of professional magazine subscriptions. Necessary books and equipment you purchased for use in your employment; but if their useful life is more than one year, you may deduct only the depreciation (I.T. 3448, 1941-1 CB 206).

3. Service charges equal to dues required to be paid to an employee organization or union by nonmembers as a condition of employment (Rev. Rul. 68-82, 1968-1, CB 68).

4. Amounts paid to substitutes by teachers when absent from school (I.T. 2973, XV-1, CB 89).

5. Office in home. Under IRS rules, an employee who, as a condition of employment, is required to provide his own space and facilities to perform some of his duties and who regularly uses a portion of his residence for that purpose, may deduct a pro rata portion of the maintenance and depreciation on the

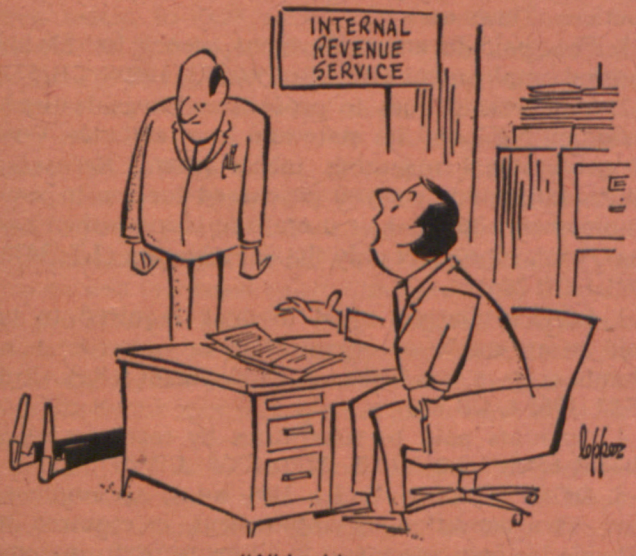
residence (Rev. Rul. 62-180, 1962-2 CB 52). Note, however, that the Tax Court applies a more liberal rule and has allowed the deduction, even if not required by the employer, as long as the use of the office in the home is "appropriate and helpful" to the conduct of the employee's duties (*Bischoff*, T.C. Memo. 1966-102; *Peiss*, 40 T.C. 78, acquiescence by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, 1968-2 CB 2).

Exclusions

The following are some excludable items that need not be reported on the income tax return:

1. Premiums for a tax-sheltered annuity purchased on behalf of a teacher by his school board are excludable in the current tax year up to amounts within the exclusion allowance limits. The annuity becomes taxable when received (IRC 1954, sec. 403(b); see IRS Publication 571).

2. Scholarship and fellowship grants are tax-exempt, subject to certain limitations. The exclusion extends to amounts received for expenses incident to the grant, such as travel (including an allowance for family travel), research, clerical help, or equipment. The grants are not excludable if they represent compensation for past, present, or future services, or are for study or research that is primarily for the benefit of the grantor. *Degree* candidates may exclude the amount of the scholarship or fellowship in full except for the portion received for teaching, research, or other part-time employment required as a condition of the grant unless such activities are required of all candidates for the particular degree. Grants to *nondegree* candidates are excludable only if the grantor is a tax-exempt organization under Sec. 501 (c) (3) or a governmental unit or agency. An amount up to $300 per month times the number of months the amounts are received under the grant in the tax year is excludable up to a lifetime total of 36 months.



"All I said was,
'You're absolutely right, it was our mistake.' "

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(IRC 1954, sec. 117; Reg. sec. 1.117-1 through 4).

Numerous IRS rulings have applied these general rules. Depending on the facts presented, some grants were ruled excludable, others not. Here are some examples: Deemed excludable are stipends under NDEA (Rev. Rul. 61-53, 1961-1 CB 21) and under National Science Foundation (Rev. Rul. 54-498, 1958-2, CB 47); leadership fellows awards to train school officials in economically disadvantaged rural counties (Rev. Rul. 69-472, 1969-2, CB 13); and payments by USOE to colleges and universities on behalf of National Teacher Corps teacher-interns for part-time graduate study, but not the payments to participants in National Teacher Corps during preservice and in-service period (Rev. Rul. 68-312, 1968-1 CB 59). Also ruled nonexcludable are payments by a state to teacher "consultants" funded under the Education Professions Development Act to attend state's in-service training program to improve methods of English instruction in the public schools on the basis that these payments are compensation, not payments for education or training (Rev. Rul. 70-518, I.R.B. 1970-41, 6).

3. Sick pay and disability benefits. Sick leave pay because of illness or injury, including amounts received by teachers during sabbatical leave for health restoration, may be excluded under these conditions:

- If the sick pay is 75 percent or less than the regular weekly salary, there is a waiting period of seven calendar days (none if hospitalized as a bed patient for at least one day). Up to $75 a week is excludable for the first 30 days of absence and up to $100 a week thereafter.
- If the sick pay exceeds 75 percent of the regular weekly salary, nothing is excludable for the first 30 calendar days of absence (even if hospitalized). After this 30-day waiting period, up to $100 a week is excludable. Teachers may not exclude sick pay for those days when school is closed for holidays, summer recess, or other vacation period. Sick pay must be included in gross income on the tax return; the excludable amount is then listed separately and subtracted from the income figure. Attach Form 2440 or other required statement. (IRC 1954, sec. 105(d); Rev. Rul. 57-360, 1957-2 C.B. 97; Rev. Rul. 58-91, 1958-1 CB 49).

Non-duty-connected disability benefits may be treated as sick-leave payments until normal retirement age is reached (IRC 1954, sec. 105(d); Reg. sec. 105-4; Rev. Rul. 68-385, 1968-2 CB 53). Amounts received as Workmen's Compensation payments are excludable in full (Reg. sec 1.104-1).

Retirement Tax Credit

If you are a retired teacher or are over age 65, you may be entitled to a credit against your income tax of up to 15 percent of retirement income. Schedule R of redesigned Form 1040 is provided for this purpose. The computation of the retirement tax credit is complicated. However, if you elect to have IRS compute your tax, it will also figure your retirement income tax credit and allow it in computing your tax.

—*NEA Research Division.*

TEACHING TELEPHONE TECHNIQUES

BETTY EARLS, *vocational office training coordinator, Columbia High School, Decatur, Georgia.*

□ **An estimated 800 million telephone calls are placed** in the United States every 24 hours. While most of these go through like clockwork, many involve exasperating situations on the receiving end. Do any of these sound familiar?

- It's 1 in the morning when the phone rings. As you guessed, someone has the wrong number.
- Mr. Mumble is on the phone again. How embarrassing it is to ask over and over before getting needed information.
- You pick up the phone—and wish you hadn't. Burst eardrum! The caller's shrill voice is positively deafening!
- Your call to a local business office is put on hold. Forever. Many minutes later you realize they have forgotten all about you.
- Yes, it's Miss Curt again, and you expect to lose your head as she snaps away. You resolve to find a new beauty parlor.

Proper telephone training can correct these and other headaches caused by human error and bad manners. Our program at Columbia High School in Decatur, Georgia, is designed to train students in marketable telephone techniques for both social and business contacts. We obtained valuable training materials for the unit from the Southern Bell Telephone Company. Most teachers will find companies in their areas equally willing to help.

Our students learn the techniques for good telephone usage and put them to use in a learning situation by means of a teletrainer. Later, they apply what they've learned in business and school offices, where they work as part of their vocational training programs. Office supervisors have been most complimentary about student performance. "That young person handles the phone just like a professional" is a frequent comment.

The purpose of the teletrainer unit, which lends itself to both junior high and senior high school groups, is to improve students' communications skills in English and speech classes, as well as in business courses and distributive education classes. The teletrainer consists of two telephones, a control panel designed for dial and busy tones, ringing signals, and a loudspeaker. Extension cords connect the phones with a machine that records the practice conversations.

After using the teletrainer in class, students play back and analyze their conversations. They learn to answer calls graciously, intelligibly, and effectively, and to place both business and social calls in a pleasing manner. The students also gain practice in making and receiving long distance calls and in making effective use of both the telephone directory and the Yellow Pages.

Timely, interesting films from the telephone company point up various aspects of the course. One called "Invisible Diplomats" emphasizes the importance of the PBX attendant's role in business. The film tells the story of a girl who manages to win a contract for her firm after another loses it because of careless telephone habits.

A lecture-demonstration—"Your Image Is on the Line"—is an up-to-the-minute program with colorful flip charts and tape-recorded voices demonstrating the value of telephone courtesy and proper telephone habits in business organizations. Professional tips on voice improvement are offered in another lecture-demonstration which enables participants to hear how their voices sound over the telephone.

A number of booklets are also available for use in this course. *The Telephone at Your Command* explains the development of telephone switching equipment, from early interconnection methods to the newest electronic systems. *Your Telephone Personality* describes the qualities of a good voice and includes suggestions for good telephone habits.

Throughout the course, teachers emphasize that "the voice with the smile" is always the most effective one. Our students learn how smooth telephone techniques can help them gain and keep friends for their prospective employers. In an age where the telephone is used more and more for fast, effective communication, we must certainly educate our young people in its proper use. □

This article was prepared in cooperation with the National Business Education Association, an NEA associated organization.

CURRICULUM

□ **Today's students are saying that they don't want** to learn what their parents learned, no matter how cleverly the old is dressed up in new garb. To some extent, they are right; to some extent, they are probably wrong. The point is to develop criteria that will help decide when the old retains its validity, when the new is little more than a sensation of the moment, and when the lasting parts of tradition can be blended with desirable aspects of the contemporary.

Before considering new possibilities for the *content* of instruction in the 1970's, it is worth making the point that much of the "irrelevance" of which students complain stems as much from *how* a subject is taught as from *what* is taught. For example, the Pythagorean theorem ($a^2+b^2=c^2$) is literally a method for determining the length of one side of a right triangle when the other two sides are known. Rarely does a student or adult have any need for such a formula; at its most obvious level of meaning, therefore, any student might question the "relevance" of learning it.

At a higher level of meaning, however, the Pythagorean theorem concerns the interrelationship of three variables and the possibility of deriving a law from their behavior. Deriving the law requires measurement and observation. The theorem might be made the subject of a fascinating intellectual exercise if the teacher told students that a relationship does exist between the sides of a right triangle and asked them to find it themselves by analyzing a dozen right triangles of varying hypotenuses and sides. In this fashion, the students would imitate the mental process that Pythagoras himself must have gone through; they would—as the "inquiry-directed" school of curricular reform advocates—learn about mathematical logic and problem solving by *acting* as mathematicians.

And at an even higher level of meaning, relevance, or whatever one chooses to call it, an imaginative teacher could help his students consider other trios of interrelated variables. For example, students might arrive at generalizations about the following:

- The amount of gasoline in an auto's tank, the speed at which the operator drives, and the distance he can cover before running out of gas
- The degree to which a Congressman votes according to his convictions, the strength of his constituents' sentiments on an issue on which the majority differ with him, and the intensity of his desire to be re-elected
- The 12-2 arrangement of Shakespeare's sonnets, the 8-6 arrangement of Edna St. Vincent Millay's sonnets, and the success each poet achieved within those self-imposed formats.

Some of these matters are quantifiable, some are not, and that fact is itself a useful lesson in learning to draw inferences and make judgments. All involve observation, comparison, measurement according to objective or subjective criteria, and the development of a critical sense in the solution of large or small problems that humans have been or are concerned with.

"Relevant" teaching, regardless of the subject matter, also depends on clearly specified instructional goals. Ralph Tyler makes this point in *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction.* He states:

Many educational programs do not have clearly defined purposes. In some cases one may ask a teacher of science, of English, or social studies, or of some other subject what objectives are being aimed at and get no satisfactory reply. The teacher may say in effect that he aims to develop a well-rounded person and that he is teaching En-

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This article is adapted from a chapter of *Schools for the 70's—and Beyond: A Staff Report* by the NEA Center for the Study of Instruction. The volume also discusses governance, decision making, and the role of students in the schools. (Copyright © 1971 by the National Education Association.) For further information about the publication, see "New NEA Publications and Audiovisual Materials" in the March issue of Today's Education.

glish or social studies or some other subject because it is essential to a well-rounded education.

No doubt some excellent educational work is being done by artistic teachers who do not have a clear conception of goals but who do have an intuitive sense of what is good teaching, what materials are significant, what topics are worth dealing with, and how to present material and develop topics effectively with students. Nevertheless, if an educational program is to be planned and if efforts for continued improvement are to be made, it is very necessary to have some conception of the goals that are being aimed at.

These educational objectives become the criteria by which materials are selected, content is outlined, instructional procedures are developed, and tests and examinations are prepared. All aspects of the educational program are really means to accomplish basic educational purposes. Hence, if we are to study an educational program systematically and intelligently, we must first be sure as to the educational objectives aimed at.

Educational objectives, in sum, are a logical starting point for approaching the second aspect of curricular "relevance," which is the objective relationship between a student's course of study and his present and future life. What content is important to him now? What content will be important to him in the future?

There are few lasting answers to these questions. Indeed, much of student, teacher, and parent dissatisfaction with curriculum stems from the fact that schools today cling to content that schools of earlier decades offered. Curricular revision, especially in a society as fast-paced as ours, must be constant; it will never be completed.

But one thing is certain: We have overemphasized the intellectual development of students at the expense of other capacities. Arthur W. Foshay has suggested five other categories of human development—emotional, social, aesthetic, spiritual, and physical. These imply other directions for curricular reform.

Of course, none of these exists in isolation. Scientists testify that a perfectly developed, rigorous proof of a theory has an aesthetic appeal as well as an intellectual one, and one's appreciation of medieval art may be enhanced by one's religious beliefs. Thus curricular material devised to nurture one capacity may in fact touch on two or more.

Can we, in fact, develop curriculums to stimulate the growth of all Foshay's categories in addition to intellectual development? Unquestionably, we do not know as much about his five categories as we do about cognitive growth, but, considering how much we have learned about the latter by directing attention to it, it seems probable that we can learn as much about the others. "We are not short of means," Foshay says. "We are short of nerve."

One way to make the activity of the school more relevant to students is to involve them directly as active performers in the educative process. For example, the suggestion that students can learn about mathematics by acting as mathematicians (given in reference to the Pythagorean theorem) can be extended to most other areas of the curriculum—though Foshay believes that the schools have employed this simple technique only in the arts. According to him:

> The crucial difference between learning in the arts and learning in the academic fields is this: In the arts, performance is the learning. If we taught art the way we teach math, children would begin by studying paper, then tempera, then crayon, then stick figures, and so on. By the time they finished elementary school, they would be ready to try putting together an art object under the teacher's careful surveillance. The notion that they might some day make their own art object would be withheld until late in high school, and then only the most able would be invited to dream about this prospect.

Thank heaven, nobody has thought of the arts that way in 50 years. In the art program, students begin by making art objects and continue doing so through all

their art courses. The teacher is a vital but a peripheral figure in the learning situation—a resource person who teaches new skills when the students need them.

Teachers could guide learning in other fields in the same way. Students could write and edit stories or articles for school or commercial publications or for their own enjoyment and understanding or for the enjoyment and understanding of their classmates. They could interpret history the way historians do—by analyzing the sources of history (diaries, newspapers, letters, tombstones, and the like). They could, in effect, be apprentices in each of the academic disciplines.

The most direct way to ensure the relevance of instruction to students' lives is to select topics that they see as genuine problems in their own lives—and the times offer manifold examples of such problems: war, racial strife, economic woes, population control, environmental pollution. None of these topics fits neatly into the departmental organization of schools; the study of each requires the techniques of mathematics, history, science, and communications. Learners will be led to seek information they need rather than to memorize the facts presented in their textbooks (the results of someone else's investigations of a problem) and to distinguish between the relevant and the merely interesting.

Focusing on genuine problems that have a personal importance to learners reverses the usual school procedure, which is to make up problems whose solution requires the use of a technique assigned for the day, e.g., Farmer Jones can fill trough A in 3½ hours and trough B in 5 hours, and so on.

Even the youngest children face plenty of problems. Indeed, in the essay, "Toward a Relevant Curriculum," in *Radical School Reform*, Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner suggest that all syllabuses, curriculums, and textbooks could be replaced with a "What's-Worth-Knowing Questions Curriculum." A few of the questions are: What do you worry about most? What are the causes of your worries? Can any of your worries be eliminated and, if so, how? Which of them might you deal with first? Do other people have the same problems? How do you know? How can you find out?

Such questions, the authors point out, are "a metaphor of our sense of relevance," not a catechism that they believe every teacher should adopt.

Other teachers might prefer other questions. The point is to ask honestly what interests students in their *present* lives. To do this, teachers must also raise questions about the Questions Curriculum itself: Will the questions increase the learner's *will* as well as his *capacity* to learn? In order to get answers, will the learner be required to make inquiries? Does each question allow for alternative answers (which implies alternative modes of inquiry)?

Both these approaches can supplement the normal process of curricular revision and are being tried in various schools around the nation. A few samples:

Burlington (Vermont) High School has made the educational process itself a subject for inquiry through talk-ins at which students and teachers address themselves to such questions as What is the responsibility of the public school? If you could set up a class just the way you wanted it, what would it be like? and Who should evaluate teachers?

In McLean, Virginia, five ninth and tenth grade teachers, certificated both in English and social studies, organized a humanities course around "man's efforts to find answers to life's basic questions." Questions included What is my relationship to God? To myself? To my fellow man? To the state? Course materials drew upon the responses of other civilizations (Ancient Near East, Renaissance Italy and England, China) to these questions as exemplified in their literature, political and religious philosophies, art, and music.

Teachers at Philadelphia's Advancement School seem to specialize in developing curriculums that require "action and movement" on the grounds that 12- and 13-year-olds find it difficult to concentrate on abstract ideas and must use their hands and the rest of their bodies as much as possible. A phys ed and a reading teacher teamed up to develop a reading unit that explored the appeal of boxing to minority groups today and in the 1920's. Students interviewed professional fighters, made forays into literature about boxing, staged fights, and constantly wrote about their experiences. Within a three-month period, 90 percent of the youngsters in one class had raised their reading comprehension by eight months.

Schools considering curriculum reform need to put every subject on trial, with teachers *and* students testifying for the defense or the prosecution. They ought to ask Should every required subject *be* required? Should more electives be offered? Does the curriculum reflect the major concerns of the day?

They should bring back alumni who graduated one, five, or 20 years ago in order to testify on the relevance of what they learned in school. They need to stress, however, that they are after the truth, not a testimonial. Those who graduated at the bottom of their classes need to be invited as well as those who graduated at the top.

The curriculum *must* move away from an emphasis on the retention of facts to an emphasis on the processes of inquiry, comparison, interpretation, and synthesis. A student in whom the desire or the need to know has been developed can learn to go after the information he needs; a student to whom knowledge has been presented as a grab bag of names, numbers, and dates will have little trouble forgetting all of them as soon as the final exam is over.

In addition to purely intellectual growth, the curriculum should regard emotions, attitudes, ideals, ambitions, and values as legitimate areas of concern for the educational process and should emphasize the student's need to develop a sense of respect for self and others. How would you go about it? How *did* you go about it in your own life? What major mistakes did you make? The history of individual lives can become a part of curriculum, and every school is full of young and old humans who contend daily with hope, fear, ambition, self-doubt, disappointment, and pleasure. □

NATIONAL ASSESSMENT MOVES AHEAD

GEORGE B. BRAIN, *dean, College of Education, Washington State University, Pullman.*

□ **The American public is increasingly concerned** with output. Because the success of many human enterprises can be measured by concrete outcomes, the public is asking for more specific information about what they are getting in return for their big investment in education.

Our nation's most ambitious program for measuring student progress toward established goals is the National Assessment of Educational Progress, now being administered by the Education Commission of the States. This program is designed to determine the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and understandings of four selected age groups—children 9, 13, and 17 years of age, and young adults in the 26-35 age bracket.

The National Assessment uses statistical sampling procedures to find out what certain *groups* of young people know rather than what *individuals* know. It is, therefore, a "census" of the actual knowledge of young people in these age groups.

National results are now available in three areas: science, citizenship, and writing. Two major trends emerge from an analysis of the information.

- The first is comforting: Children's knowledge increases with age.
- The second is disturbing: Adults tend to forget much of what they learned in school.

In most science exercises, the percentage of respondents answering correctly rose from age 9 to age 17. On some questions, mostly scientific ones of a technical nature, more 17-year-olds than adults answered correctly, although there were major exceptions. However, on questions which involved applying knowledge in a practical context, adults outscored students.

Other significant trends were these: Children with educated parents do best. Black students perform as well as whites on science questions.

Responses to the exercises in citizenship that were designed to gauge attitudes and opinions rather than knowledge indicate that most young Americans recognize social problems but have only limited knowledge of the political process. Most adults and older students indicated an awareness of the more urgent problems which society faces and a familiarity with some of the ways required to alleviate these problems.

Children from 9 through 17 showed progressive growth in both social and business communication, but did not show the same growth in observing events and reporting on them creatively. Older students tended to demonstrate a paucity of imagination and an inability to communicate in an interesting way.

The current reports, the first in a series to be released by the Education Commission of the States, establish bench marks in each subject area against which future programs in education will be measured. Information from this assessment of goals, objectives, services, and processes should be useful at all levels of educational decision making. The hope is that when data are released in detail they will be of considerable value to scholars, curriculum planners, and others concerned with the development of educational programs in the public schools.

The central question must still be this: To what extent are school services and processes advancing or impeding student growth and changes in performance with respect to educational program objectives? The National Assessment is beginning to offer some specific information that will prove useful in responding to this question. Clearly this program will have a significant impact on the entire educational process throughout the United States. □

WYLIE CRAWFORD, *coordinator of the TTT Teacher Education Center, University of Chicago.*

My first year of teach

□ **After a full week of teacher orientation workshops,** I made my teaching debut. I had just finished a year of study at the University of Chicago and was ready to try out some of the theories and dime-store philosophies that I had come across during the past year, one of which was that teaching was simply the other side of the coin from studying.

One of the first sources of confusion in my new job dealt with organizational structure. The school where I taught was a lower-middle-class suburban public school which employed various innovative techniques in order to achieve the personal development of both the students and the teachers. In order to do this, it allowed considerable flexibility in the use of facilities, course scheduling, and study requirements. The school stressed the development of the individual, but it also used team teaching.

Aside from these structural-organizational concerns, I was apprehensive about the whole subject of control of large quantities of potentially hostile students. My past experience offered no illumination on this account.

How was I going to talk to them? Could I be relaxed and a "pal"? Or an authoritarian and hard-nosed dictator? I doubted if I could pull off the latter, and certainly the former seemed more in keeping with the school's philosophy.

I had resolved ahead of time that the best method at first would be to establish myself as a "significant other," that is, someone to be reckoned with. Past experience as a student had shown me that teachers who were not "significant others" were not effective in maintaining either student attention or interest. They were teachers who had been judged unworthy of respect either through their weakness, their injustice, or their ignorance of subject matter.

I approached the first days of class with many preconceptions floating around in my mind and with a mixed bag of emotions (and indescribable gastric distress attributable to the long drive to school, the early homeroom, and the first days). Chaos threatened during the first week or so. The physics course was not too much trouble, since physics was my major field in college. Most of my initial activities in physics involved making up a course outline for each topic. The general science was another story, however. Hours were spent in trying either to comprehend or to create materials for this course.

Throughout the year, it was a continual race to keep ahead of the students in these varied and unfamiliar topics. As a result, it was not until well into October that I found enough time or energy to devote to the more personal and rewarding activities of the teacher: talking to students and other teachers during free time, sitting back and looking at where I was going, and making connections between 300 names and 300 people in front of me.

The latter was no mean task. The traditional name-learning aids used in other schools unfortunately were not available in a team-teaching situation. A seating chart (for the large-group instruction) was made up, but was too big to be useful, and there were no fixed seats in the other activities (labs, seminars, independent study). Students met during the week in varying combinations and at irregular intervals, so that some students were very familiar and others were nearly anonymous. After a while, of course, most of the names became associated with faces, but this process took longer than it would have in a traditional school. The names, I might add, were learned in the nick of time. I had the majority of them down pat just as I realized that my control problems were beginning to show.

In the beginning, my fears about discipline and class control were abated. Instead of finding students who were organized for an all-out, massed offensive, I found students who wished for the most part to be left alone; instead of finding students who were outspoken and arrogant, I found students who were yielding and eager not to "make waves." For the first week or two, the vast majority of my students just sat, seemed to listen attentively, and asked questions when called for. All was sweetness and light, it seemed—except that, at times, I felt like a leper. As I walked through the halls or independent study areas, I was aware that I was being sized up. I was being regarded with sidelong glances—both curious and fearful—which seemed to ask: "Is he a murderer or just a strapper?"

This was somewhat disarming, since my idea of becoming a "significant other" was to have the class feel at home with me and like me, so that if the going ever

Excerpted with permission from "The Other Side of the Coin," an article in *Don't Smile Until Christmas: Accounts of the First Year of Teaching*, edited by Kevin Ryan. © 1970 by the University of Chicago Press. All rights reserved.

(AND WHAT I LEARNED)

got rough during the year, I would be able to recall the pleasant days, when we were all friends, and emotionally blackmail them into wanting things that way again. But this approach couldn't work, of course, if they were convinced from the start that I was another ogre just like those of their grade school days. I was determined to win them over by personality, however, contrary to the advice from one of the more experienced (and cynical) teachers who warned: "Don't smile until Christmas."

My colleague's advice was not taken, of course, since my ideal classroom was one in which everyone was happy, where everyone felt free to speak out when he had something important to say, without fear from harsh criticism or ridicule from me or from his fellows. To create such a situation, it was only natural to smile, and so I did. And eventually, the class did too, but in a slightly different way.

As the first month passed, the routine and boredom of even this school began to set in. The happy, relaxed loosely disciplined class which I saw developing began to take strange and subtle turns in the wrong directions. The students were not just happy and relaxed, they were content and almost asleep.

I started to get the message: their natural curiosity had not been aroused. I tried to spice up my presentations and asked more questions of individuals in the class, but this seemed to no avail. The symptoms persisted—one student would be looking out the window; another student would be sitting on a table when there were chairs still available; two girls would be gossiping just a little too loud, and would continue even when I stood right next to them.

While these were noticeable changes, no one of them was objectionable enough to make a big fuss about. After all, my own concept of the ideal classroom atmosphere was broad enough to allow for occasional uninterested students. There would be days when they, too, would become involved and some other students would lose interest. Treating the students as adults, I felt that they knew they were pushing my patience a bit and that a gentle reminder would be sufficient to set things straight. And it did, for a while. But soon I found myself giving mild admonishments more and more often, and always to the same small group of offenders.

Now, instead of just looking out the window, they were waving to passing cars. Instead of just sitting on the tables, a few were sprawled out on them. My resolve was still not shaken. After all, I had expected much worse, and we were still getting used to each other. When they saw the folly of it all, our little testing period would be over.

In reality, as far as the students were concerned, the testing period was already over, and they had won the game. I was going to be a pushover. And, since the other students had been watching the events of the first month, my list of offenders got longer as my blood pressure got higher. The situation got to the point where I had to brace myself before walking into certain particularly "liberated" classes. But one day when I was not mentally braced for the usual harassments, I did what came naturally and gave them a thorough chewing-out. I'm sure it was too emotional, but it worked. A month before, I would have considered it an unnecessary act, and a sign of failure. But now, it seemed the only thing to do. I had been poisoned and insulted by their giggles and inattentions long enough.

After this incident, I felt that things would simmer down, which they did for a while. But when trouble began to brew again, I asked each individual in the little core group of five to meet me after school for a five-minute conference. All agreed to come, but only one showed up. I was obviously still not a "significant other" for them.

The delinquent four received one-hour detentions, the first detentions I had given that year. I was not proud to have given them, but my patience and resources had run out. I was glad that this procedure was available to me, since I had dug myself such a deep hole that I needed some show of external authority to help me begin the return to sanity.

This was only a beginning. There were endless tests to my authority throughout the year. Somehow, my chosen initial approach to classroom control seemed to extend my testing period indefinitely. Throughout the year I felt that I had to prove over and over again that I really was a teacher, and not just the good-natured boob I had seemed at the beginning of the year.

It seemed that since I at first chose not to use the facial expressions, verbal barbs, and peer pressures that every "real" teacher uses, I could never use them effectively in the students' eyes. I concluded that for me to eventually "break the rules" and do what I really wanted to do with the class, I first had to learn those rules very well. □

LEARNING BY TUTORING OTHERS

SIXTH GRADERS AND THEIR YOUNGER TUTEES BENEFIT FROM THEIR READING SESSIONS.

MARY M. HARRIS, *first grade teacher, Devotion School, Brookline, Massachusetts; formerly sixth grade teacher, Kramer School, Oxford, Ohio.*

□ **The first day of classes in the fall of 1968 I stood at** my desk and looked around the room. Larry was rocking his chair on its two back legs. Several pupils were vigorously chewing gum. With his head resting on his elbow, Eric gazed out the window. Judy bit her nails as her frightened glance moved from the other students to me. The sneer on Gary's face dared me to discipline him.

These were the poor readers from the sixth grade class with whom I was to work 50 minutes a day, five days a week. During this time I wanted to do more than just present the material; I wanted the students to become involved, to take responsibility, and to learn to enjoy reading.

As I stood there wondering how to begin, Gary's voice rang out loud and clear. "This is the dummy reading group, huh?"

Not a jaw stopped chewing and not an eye shifted, but a tenseness suddenly filled the air. Gary had done me a favor. He had at least caught everyone's attention.

I didn't waste time denying Gary's remark. "Everyone in here has some type of reading problem," I began. "The problems are different, and so are the causes. This year we are going to try to correct these problems." I hadn't won any followers, but they were still listening.

"We aren't going to use any textbooks," I went on. Larry's chair steadied on all four legs. "We will use certain materials, but each person will work only on those that will help him with his problem. Seventy-five library books are on the bookshelf. Today each of you will have a chance to choose a book. You may take this book home with you and read it. If you don't like it, you may put it back on the shelf and choose another one. When you finish a book, you will tell me a little about it and then choose a new one. I will not require written reports. After you have finished one book and have completed certain requirements, you may begin tutoring."

The gum chewing jaws slowed down. "You mean each of us will have someone tutor us?" Mary asked me.

I smiled. "No, I mean that each of you will tutor a younger child who is having reading difficulties."

The expressions on their faces told me that they didn't quite understand or really believe me, but they'd go along with my plan for a while. This was all I needed.

After six months, the students were not only with me, but their enthusiasm and interest had gone far beyond my expectations. Many read much more than the required 75 pages a week. Their comprehension had improved; their ability to attack new words was better; and, best of all, their attitude had changed. They accepted the responsibility of choosing their books, of doing their exercises, of preparing their material for the children they tutored. Their homeroom teachers told me that most of them carried this attitude over to their other schoolwork.

Why did this change come about? Quite obviously *tutoring* was the key. However, I'd like to present the total picture.

The first day I gave every student a practice book on the third, fourth, or fifth grade level, depending on previous test scores. The books had nine lessons to a unit and nine units in a book. Since people work better when rewards are immediate, I allowed a child who had three perfect lessons in a row to skip to a new unit. This incentive enabled those who had the ability to push ahead.

At first, as students completed their practice lessons, they read in their library books. I told them they could take the books home to read, but I gave no assignments. When a student finished his first book, he reported to me. My questions were brief: Did you like the book? Why or why not? Who was the most interesting character? As soon as I was convinced he had read the book (and experience enables one to make this decision quickly), I gave the child credit and allowed him to choose a new book.

He also was ready to begin preparation for tutoring. This consisted of making a set of picture cards representing various vowel and blend sounds, diphthongs, and so on. Of course, the students had to know these sounds themselves in order to make the cards. This gave me the opportunity to fill in the gaps in their previous phonics education. I worked with the entire group some of the time; with small groups or individuals at other times. Since the students were preparing these cards for young children, they did not scorn

material they might otherwise have considered too babyish.

As the students became involved in making phonic cards during class time, they no longer had time to read their library books. However, I told them they could not tutor unless they gave a book report every two weeks. Therefore they had to begin reading at home. This rule held for the remainder of the year. No child could begin tutoring until he had given one book report, and from then on he had to give a report on at least 150 pages every two weeks in order to continue tutoring. This put the responsibility directly on each individual, for if he lost his chance to tutor, he was to blame. The loss was not permanent, however, because by giving another book report, he could reinstate himself as a tutor.

Some students, naturally, were able to accept this responsibility more easily than others. For those having particular difficulty, I assigned 10 pages a day and checked on their reading each morning until they were able to carry on alone. A few students tried to report on books only partly read. I developed the ability to glance through the books and pull questions from middle and end chapters even though I might be unfamiliar with the story.

At first, I chose library books on the third, fourth, and fifth grade levels. I felt it was better for a student to read and understand a simple book than to stumble through one that was too hard. The librarian helped me find books with low grade level vocabulary but upper grade level interest. As the year progressed, I selected more difficult books, and by the end of the year some students were reading seventh grade material. Although I provided a great variety of books in both subject matter and degree of difficulty, I let the students choose books from other sources as long as they checked them out with me.

When the idea of having the pupils do some tutoring first occurred to me, I had in mind these two benefits: getting students to take the responsibility of daily reading and filling in their own missing gaps.

I went to several teachers of lower grades and asked if they would care to send children to us. Some were skeptical, but enough were enthusiastic that we managed to find a child for each member of the class. We had children from a special education class and from the first, second, third, and fourth grades. Some of these children had poor reading backgrounds; some had gotten behind because of illness; others, for emotional or intellectual reasons, could not work up to their grade level. If the teachers wanted to send assigned work with these children, our tutors helped them with that. If the teachers sent nothing, our tutors worked with these youngsters on phonics and either listened to them read or read stories to them, asking and answering questions.

As each sixth grade student began tutoring, I gave him a set of dittoed sheets that contained 36 sets of lessons to help the tutored child.

The tutoring period lasted 15 minutes. Some children came five days a week; others came four, three, or two, depending on the wish of the child's teacher. A chart on the wall showed the name of the sixth grade student, the name of the child to be tutored, his grade level, and the days and times he was to be tutored. Once we organized the system, the sixth graders got their children at the beginning of the period, brought them to our room, tutored them, and took them back after 15 minutes with no prompting from me. However, I was available if necessary.

The sight of 18 sixth grade tutors quietly working with 18 younger children is awe-inspiring. As I watched Mary giving spelling words to Beth, Gary listening to John read his preprimer, and Judy (a natural-born teacher) encouraging Sally, I knew that the program was a success.

In helping the younger children overcome their reading problems, my students became much more aware of their own and of how to solve them. When the teachers of the tutored children told the tutors how much they had helped these younger boys and girls, my sixth graders knew that this was well-earned praise. Every ego got a big boost.

The sixth graders' test scores showed that some benefited academically much more than others. These were the children of average to high intelligence who were underachievers. The students who scored less well nevertheless gained something of great importance. They gained dignity from helping the younger children. They were doing a good job and they knew it. Probably for the first time in their lives some of these students climbed from the bottom of the heap and perceived success. □

INDIVIDUALIZED REPORTING

ESTHER M. BEARG, *fifth grade teacher, Mt. Pleasant School, West Orange, New Jersey.*

□ **We educators have tried numerous grading systems** over the years. But how far have we really progressed in our quest for sincere, explicit reporting?

I finally had my students write their own report cards as auxiliaries to the official ones, encouraging them to write comments about themselves as though they were I. The result? Their comments were better than mine.

Why? Because as you can see below, I was polite; my students were direct. Perhaps the task of reporting should belong to us both.

I SAID	THEY SAID
Donna needs firm yet gentle discipline to help her see what is appropriate both in her academic work and in interaction with her peers.	She should not make fun of people just because others do.
John means well. Firm, consistent, regular guidance will develop his ability to sustain his positive feelings and behavior toward school.	I think he needs a lot of improvement. He really does.
Arlene's probing questions and general curiosity add a refreshing ingredient to our class.	Arlene is getting better and better as the days go by.
Bryna is a hard worker and an independent thinker whose eagerness to learn is a pleasure to witness.	Bryna enjoys school. She puts her best work into things. She is very attentive.
Dale is trying hard to settle down and do his work.	Dale is doing well but he can improve.
Skippy has good ideas and interpretative ability, but he often fails to complete assignments. He looks for the easy way out.	Your son is an above average student, but he is very sneaky.
There has been some improvement in Bruce's work because his attitude toward school is better. However, he must keep after his work daily.	I think Bruce is doing so-so.
Basically Joe is capable and enthusiastic. Regular guidance and understanding will help him see the need for doing what is required.	He shouldn't talk so much. And he should have more self-control and respect everything in the room. And he should talk in turn.
Dick is a fine boy with a good attitude toward learning. Let's work on helping him to follow directions and select the main ideas in reading.	Dick should not have chewed gum and not made paper airplanes.
Pete tries very hard. His vocabulary is good, but his overall comprehension is weak. This affects his work in all areas. We must help him build self-confidence.	I think in lots of things your son is good, but in handwriting and reading he needs improvement. If he keeps trying, he may move his grade up.
Rita is trying her best. How she feels about herself directly affects her schoolwork and her relationships with others in the class.	She does her best in subjects, I suppose.
Bonnie is trying hard to do all her work well.	Bonnie is keeping her work the same. She needs work in self-control.
Sally is improving in effort and attitude.	Sally is doing better. Now she at least does her work.
Dan is imaginative and has creative ideas. We have to encourage him to use these talents at appropriate times.	Dan is smart, but he needs to do his work and not tell stories or make excuses.
Jack has worked hard and he knows his math. However, he must beware of overconfidence which results in carelessness.	Jack has worked hard and has settled down, but is still a little fresh.
Mike is a harder worker in those areas he enjoys. His leadership and initiative are mature for one of his age.	Mike should work more to improve his attitude toward classwork.
Bill is good in math but weak in language arts. We must give him direction to help him improve.	He should do better in reading. He is not that good in it so next time he is going to try harder.

YOUR HEALTH

ears and hearing

MARY HUGUNIN, *medical writer, Evanston, Illinois.*

□ **Beethoven, whose hearing began to fade when he** was about 30, composed brilliant music even after he became deaf because his genius was such that he could "hear" his music in his mind. Had he been a teacher, he might not have fared as well, however.

In the regular classroom, good hearing is important because it is a key to successful communication. The teacher needs to be able to hear what students say—and how they say it. In small group situations, a slight hearing loss won't be troublesome, but in a large classroom crowded with students, it will.

If you must constantly strain to hear your pupils' remarks, you are probably aware that you quickly become tired, nervous, and ineffective. Of course, if you have a serious, untreated hearing problem, you would probably not be a classroom teacher. But you could be a teacher who is beginning to have a hearing problem. Inasmuch as a hearing loss usually occurs gradually, be alert to the following warning signals:

- When in a group situation, you find it more difficult to hear the speaker than do the others in the group.
- You find it necessary to sit near the speaker at a lecture in order to hear him.
- You have to turn the TV and radio louder than others find comfortable in order to hear a program without straining.
- You hear speech but find it hard to understand.
- You think people mumble more than they used to.

If you find most of these statements apply to you, consult your regular physician or an ear specialist (an otologist or otolaryngologist). By giving you a hearing test and examining your ears, a physician can determine whether you actually have a hearing loss and, if so, what can be done about it.

Before exploring hearing problems, let's consider what goes on in the normal ear. Even when you think you are deaf to requests, such as, "Mr. Smith, will you cover Miss Dunkirk's math class during your free period today?" the message is reaching your brain—and in two different ways.

In the air-conduction method, the outer ear collects the sound waves, which then pass through a canal to the eardrum, a thin, tightly stretched membrane which vibrates slightly when struck by the sound waves. The vibrations then travel through the middle ear, a small cavity about one-fourth by one-half inch that contains the body's three smallest bones, commonly called the hammer, the anvil, and the stirrup. (These are technically, the malleus, the incus, and the stapes—known collectively as the auditory ossicles.) These tiny bones pick up and amplify somewhat the vibrations and pass them on to the inner ear.

The inner ear is filled with fluid and contains organs of balance and acceleration and deceleration sensors. It also contains twenty- to thirty-thousand hair cells, which respond to particular frequencies and generate nerve impulses that the auditory nerve carries toward the brain. The brain interprets the impulses as sound. So you hear *with* your ears, but *in* your brain.

The inner ear receives sound waves through bone conduction as well as through air conduction. Vibrations pass through the temporal bone to the inner ear and then to the brain. For example, if you close your mouth and hum "Moon River" as low as you possibly can or press a vibrating tuning fork against the top of your head, the sound you hear will be conducted to the inner ear by way of the temporal bone. From the inner ear, nerve impulses go to the brain, as before, via the auditory nerve. In both cases (air conduction *and* bone conduction) the auditory nerve is necessary. If it or its connections are destroyed, neither air nor

bone conduction is of any avail, and one has "nerve deafness." It is said that Beethoven used a bone-conduction device, a short stick of wood attached to his piano. When he played, the composer clenched the stick between his teeth to aid the conductions of sound vibrations to his inner ear. Ordinarily what we hear is conducted partly by bone, partly by air.

If sound waves cannot affect the brain, a hearing loss results. The three main types of hearing loss are conductive, sensori-neural, or a combination of the first two.

Conductive hearing loss may result from a simple and temporary obstruction, such as excess earwax, which prevents sound from reaching the middle ear. Or fluid or mucus caused by a cold, allergy, or sinus congestion may fill the normally dry middle ear and impede the vibration of the ossicles. An earache or a slight hearing loss may follow. If you suspect an infection in the middle ear, see your doctor. He can treat the infection by administering drugs or by lancing the eardrum.

A common cause of conductive hearing loss is otosclerosis, from which Beethoven was said to suffer. This condition usually begins in young adulthood and then develops gradually. Its cause is not known, but it may run in a family. In simple otosclerosis, spongy bone tissue begins to develop in the middle ear and eventually grows around the stapes, impeding its free vibration and the transmission of sound to the inner ear.

A generation ago otosclerosis was treated by fenestration of (making an opening into) the horizontal semicircular canal. Today, a stapedectomy—an operation in which the surgeon removes the stapes entirely and replaces it with a minute bit of stainless steel or other prosthetic device—can help most people who suffer from the condition. About half of the patients regain their hearing almost immediately; others, within a few months. Some, however, are not helped, and others get worse.

In another modern operation, a tympanoplasty, an ear surgeon reconstructs the chain of bones in the middle ear, plus the eardrum. If he must remove the bones in the middle ear to reach a diseased area, he can replace the original bones or put in either artificial ones or ones from a deceased donor. This procedure (which involves exceedingly fine surgery) is important in helping military men whose hearing has been damaged by land mines and other explosives.

Though great strides have been made in correcting conductive hearing losses, sensori-neural or nerve deafness remains a tough problem for which there is no cure. If the inner ear, the hearing nerve, or the auditory area of the brain has been injured or does not function properly, nerve impulses don't get beyond the inner ear, and the brain does not "get the message." Nerve deafness may be caused by aging; some poisons; excessive doses of certain drugs (like streptomycin); a head injury; noise pollution; or childhood diseases, such as mumps and measles. A pregnant woman who contracts German measles during certain stages of her pregnancy may give birth to a child with sensori-neural deafness.

Some people with nerve deafness can regain part of their hearing if they receive early medical treatment or remove themselves from their noisy environment. Others may benefit to some degree from a hearing aid. But prevention is the best way to fight nerve deafness. Vaccines against viral diseases (especially German measles) and industrial programs to protect workers against noise pollution are important steps in the right direction.

Often a doctor will recommend a hearing aid for someone with a hearing loss. In that case, most doctors suggest that patients seek impartial advice in the selection of a particular model of hearing aid—either from a medical specialist or from a hearing-rehabilitation center. These centers do not sell hearing aids, but their skilled technicians can help the patient find the type of aid he needs and refer him to a dealer who sells and services the appropriate model for him.

Since the dealer has the responsibility for fitting the aid and offering other technical assistance, it is important to select someone with a good reputation.

Modern hearing aids are usually small, light, and practically unnoticeable even though a complete one contains a microphone, amplifier, battery, receiver, and controls. Their cost ranges from about $100 to $400, including service.

Getting used to a hearing aid takes time. The wearer will suddenly hear sounds—some unwelcome—that he may have missed for years. The brain must be reeducated to distinguish and separate sounds and to ignore certain disturbing noises.

Unlike most parts of the body, ears are practically maintenance free! The only regular care you need to give them is to clean the outer ear with a washcloth stretched over the end of the finger. If water gets into the external canals during swimming, flush the water out with a dropperful of 70 percent alcohol.

If wax accumulates in the ear canal, have it removed by a doctor. His method is safest and most effective. Picking in the ear canal with hairpins or other objects may cause infection, or these objects may puncture the eardrum.

Protecting your hearing doesn't end with clean, disease-free ears. Not in today's screeching, screaming world. The classroom may be a quiet place, relatively speaking, but harmful noises may surround you in other places. Lucky is the person who can retreat to a soundproof den at home to escape the noise of blaring stereo sets, power lawn mowers, and vibrating appliances. If you have attended a school dance featuring a rock band, you know it can be, literally, a deafening experience. Studies show that such music can cause significant hearing impairment.

Protect yourself against dangerous noises. Avoid them when you can and support legislation to curb noxious sounds you cannot control directly, such as those from jet planes. Your hearing is a precious thing. Don't let it slip away from you. □

In-Service Micro-College

WADE N. PATTERSON, *former assistant superintendent of schools, Grants Pass, Oregon; now an Education Fellow assigned to the Teacher Corps, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.*

□ **"We learned a lot for a change. Morale is high."**

"Preparation for the Micro-College class sharpened my teaching."

"Why didn't we do this before?"

These are some of the favorable comments from teachers attending the Grants Pass (Oregon) Public School District Micro-College, held when I was assistant superintendent. The Saturday event at North Junior High School (9 to 3 o'clock) drew a majority of our teachers (grades 1-12) and administrators. Approximately 50 different Micro-College classes, lasting from 15 minutes to an hour, were scheduled (five or six at a time) during the six-hour period.

I can't take credit for the name Micro-College—or the concept behind it. Actually, I borrowed the idea from Bob Crosby, a professor at Gonzaga University, who used it successfully during a professional development conference in Spokane, Washington. But perhaps adaptation of the design for in-service use in a school system was original. No matter. The significant point is that most of the people attending our one-day Micro-College pronounced it a success.

What is the recipe for a worthwhile professional in-service project for teachers? High involvement by participants, relatively wide individual choices, and enough novelty to appeal to a large and diverse audience are the main ingredients. Our design for a Micro-College combined all these factors, but flexibility was the keynote.

For example, we offered a variety of classes with three or more scheduled concurrently. Teachers could visit as many—or as few—classes as they wished. A person was free to stay with a particular group for a few minutes or for the entire period. Moreover, he had the option of remaining for further discussion when time ran out. Participants wishing to continue the class simply moved into an "open" room, scheduled for this very purpose.

One of the major attractions was the fact that so many teachers volunteered to teach their colleagues—to serve as "professors." In the letter I sent to every certificated teacher in my district, telling them about our proposed intellectual smorgasbord, I included this request:

"Educators are notoriously modest about their projects, techniques, ideas, and dreams. We are going to provide a way for all District No. 7 educators to share with their colleagues. We hope you will attend and contribute to what we call a Micro-College.

"Each of you is invited to conduct a presentation, demonstration, discussion, reaction (or anything else you choose) for 15 minutes, 30 minutes, or an hour. You don't have to arrange an offering in order to attend, but you can understand why it would help."

Approximately 75 persons—teachers and administrators—volunteered to serve. Later, posters advertising the event described not only the classes but also the "professors."

Classes included a variety of course offerings in-cluding teaching demonstrations (with local students) of individualized instruction and inductive social studies. Another course centered around improving discipline in a specific secondary school. All administrators were asked to avoid this class in order to insure an uninhibited flow of ideas.

There were discussions and demonstrations of role playing, media and hardware, elementary counseling techniques, and student photography. New dimensions in homemaking, individualized reading, and the planning of buildings for flexible instruction were outlined. One course related to mind-expansion techniques. A videotape presented William Glasser discussing *Reality Therapy* and *Schools Without Failure.* (Dr. Glasser—and other outside experts—were specifically requested by teachers.)

Panel discussions on what the news media want from educators featured reports by editors, newsmen, announcers, and station managers. Administrators, teachers, and board members conducted discussions of district policy-making dynamics and procedures.

The only criticisms included in the feedback were: "Too many classes scheduled at a time . . . failure to invite educators from other districts . . . Saturday morning instead of a workday."

The Micro-College design lends itself to adaptation in many situations. For example, it can be used by a group of schools or by a group of people in a large district who share common interests.

It might be developed as a special day at school in which students serve as the "professors"; a day at school for community members, parents, news media people, or board members and legislators. Or, it could be adapted to offer special classes for the general public, perhaps in connection with a school bond issue or budget election campaign.

All in all, there are many imaginative uses for a Micro-College design. And you will probably think of some other ideas which have not come to this author's mind. □

a design

STEVE LOVELADY, *newspaper journalist.*

□ **The Lincoln School is located in a low-income but** tidy neighborhood in Paramount, California. Housed in long low buildings, the school fits nicely into a neighborhood dotted with Spanish architecture. Built in 1890, its well-worn buildings reflect the fact that it is the oldest school in the district. Contrary to what one might expect, however, many students at Lincoln School have never seen the inside of a home like the ones facing the playground. They live in such places as Paramount's notorious Rosales Alley, a barrio community made up of tumbledown, tar paper shacks surrounded by a variety of small industrial firms, or in other substandard housing in this predominantly lower middle-class community.

In the fall of 1966, Lincoln School's academic record reflected its neglected environment. The students scored lowest on reading achievement tests of the 10 elementary schools in the Paramount Unified School District. About 80 percent were in the bottom quarter.

Today, following a four-year program funded by ESEA Title I, their test performances show a year's growth for every year of involvement in the program. In addition, the original substandard ranking existing at the beginning of the first year has been rectified. During the 1966-67 school year alone, the reading level of Lincoln's sixth graders climbed from 4.5 to 6.4, and their gains in arithmetic and language were comparable. Since 1967, participants have continued to achieve on a level equal to the norm for their district, according to Philip Shaner, principal-director of the Lincoln School since last June.

Lincoln School was chosen by its district to serve as a demonstration model in the teaching of students from low-income minority families. Twenty-nine percent of its pupils are Mexican Americans; many of the new enrollees are unable to speak a word of English. In 1960, 23 percent of all families served by the school had yearly incomes under $4,000; one-fourth of the adults over the age of 25 never finished the eighth grade.

With its first Title I funds ($143,373 for the 1966-67 school year), Lincoln set about to improve the performance of the 727 children the community left at its doorstep five days a week. Funds for continuing the program over a four-year span (including the school year 1970-71) total a little over a million dollars. Increased spending for the current year will support an expanded summer school program, new open-space classroom facilities for 120 additional qualified youngsters, and a variety of experimental teaching programs.

The project's first director, Glenn Davis, decided that the initial step would be to improve teacher performance through in-service training designed to increase understanding of disadvantaged children and to sharpen classroom skills. Improvement of the teachers' ability to understand the children's behavior patterns, to be sensitive to individual learning styles, and to be aware of emotional and personality factors as well as intellectual abilities was a primary goal of the in-service program.

Early sessions leaned heavily on a study by Robert Rosenthal and Lenore F. Jacobson of a San Francisco school (reported in *Scientific American,* April 1968). That celebrated study indicated that children respond to what they perceive as their teachers' expectations for them. A child who is convinced his teacher thinks he will do poorly—who has been told daily in a hundred little ways that he's a failure—will, in fact, do poorly. Likewise, a child who perceives that the teacher expects him to do well *will* do well. Teachers unwittingly communicate their expectations in a variety of ways: by their tone of voice, facial expressions, posture, and their willingness or unwillingness

for learning

to touch the children and be touched by them in return.

In-service sessions dwell not only on teacher behavior but also on evalution of individual children. Teachers swap problems on evaluation of individual children both with each other and with outside professionals. At in-service meetings, teachers use data about problem children that have been obtained from psychological evaluations, school records, medical histories, home visits, and parent conferences.

To insure having teachers who were fully in harmony with the program, Lincoln called in outside consultants and professional psychologists to guide in-service training. Teachers underwent "encounter sessions" with Louis J. Stacker, counseling psychologist, to become aware of their own attitudes toward their pupils, themselves, and their colleagues. They continued in a creative teaching workshop with Mary Jo Woodfin, who emphasized classroom management techniques that allowed for eloquence on the part of the child in his discussions with his partner, the teacher. Stressed throughout was the fact that children must see teachers as adults worth emulating.

According to the 1968-69 Project Evaluation, compiled by Evelyn Blackman of California State College at Long Beach, the value of the Lincoln program lay in the fact that its chief goal was to demonstrate expert practice with children. Freedom to experiment, to have many instructional alternatives to choose from in making decisions affecting individual children, and to try out materials, equipment, and ideas within a framework of administrative flexibility—these were the ingredients of the demonstration school.

A primary emphasis of the teacher-training program and of the subsequent classroom approach is to treat children as individuals, to study their academic and social differences, and to help them develop positive ideas about themselves as learners. Says Mr. Shaner, "The diagnostic-prescriptive approach is not, in itself, enough. An additional and essential ingredient is the implementation of a specialized, individualized program that we hope will result in improvement of the total child."

Consequently, one classroom at Lincoln may be strictly traditional; another may have children from six to nine years old working together. Still another has pupils separated into clusters of three or four, each attended by a teacher or teacher aide.

Lincoln has added a second adult to every classroom. It uses juniors, seniors, and graduate students in education from nearby colleges as paid teacher aides. These highly talented, progressive young people offer a vitality to the program that has proved invaluable.

To assist Spanish-speaking youngsters, several bilingual staff members serve as language instructors. Another dimension of the auxiliary staff is the pupil-personnel team, consisting of a full-time professional counselor and a full-time psychologist. To complement these efforts, the project now employs a full-time, home-school-community liaison worker who is a long-time resident of the community, bilingual, and of Mexican American descent.

The teacher, however, remains at the core of the learning process. Director Philip Shaner and Don Werk, the assistant principal-director, have agreed that this basic premise—conceived at the beginning of the project—remains the same. Teachers at Lincoln are told to go their own way and do their own thing. As professional workers, they are responsible for the educational program in the classroom.

Lincoln teachers are relieved of as many trivial assignments as possible. The feeling at Lincoln is that teachers should be involved in the learning process every possible moment of their time. The first director, Glenn Davis, put it this way: "The whole point is to manipulate the child's environment until he blooms. Many of these children from poor, crowded homes have never before had anyone pay attention to them as individuals. In an ordinary classroom setting, that might not happen at school either."

A tour of Lincoln School emphasizes all these points. In one classroom, 13 fourth graders share three instructors—a certificated teacher, a teaching assistant, and a language specialist.

Most of the children cluster in three circles around the three teachers, and a different learning approach is used in each circle. Meanwhile, other students work on their own. For example, a good reader whizzes through a book at his desk. When he finishes, he goes to the open access bookshelf and selects another.

One child, who has psychological problems as well as difficulty with the English language, is never permitted to feel he's a failure. Instead, he receives intensive language instruction every day. And when he looks around, he sees that all his classmates are receiving help as individualized as that planned for him.

Children have direct access to instructional materials and are free to check out filmstrips, recordings, maps, and language development cards. In such a setting, it is the teacher's task to diagnose (and prescribe for) each child's needs. The emphasis is on teaching rather than learning, based on the theoretical assumption that flexible teaching by teachers offers a freer learning climate in which children may develop and enhance their own learning styles. Administrators of this venture provide teachers with many teaching alternatives so that freedom of choice will prevail. Yet the total staff is held accountable for the ultimate goal —the children's achievement.

After initial placement of children at the start of the school year on the basis of standard achievement tests, it is up to each teacher to move his pupils, one by one, at the rate and in the way he thinks best.

To keep parents aware of what goes on, Lincoln School has organized a parent advisory committee and urges all interested persons to attend. Of the future, Shaner says, "This year we are placing a renewed emphasis upon involving parents in a variety of ways with the activities of the school. We are reaching out and joining hands with all segments of the community in order to make the school a vital and integral part of Paramount." □

CLASSROOM INCIDENT

This is another in a JOURNAL *series presenting the handling of a troublesome classroom incident by a teacher and analyses by teachers or other consultants whose training and experience may enable them to contribute illuminating insights. This month we also present the reaction of a college freshman.*

A third year English teacher, I had never encountered a ninth grade class like this: Most of its members were vocal, competitive boys of better-than-average ability who vied constantly for top honors. During my first weeks with them, these boys compared papers and grades on every short answer quiz in great detail. The boy who received 90 took time out to make sure his two neighbors really deserved 95 and 96—that I hadn't made a mistake.

I could understand their concern, knowing the importance good students usually attach to high grades. In fact, I had told the class on the first day how important it is for each young person to set a good record and to learn as much as he can in school. How could I have guessed how unnecessary the first part of this admonition was!

For a time I avoided giving the class an assignment which would involve teacher judgment in grading, but I knew I couldn't go on this way forever. Finally, I assigned a theme on a subject of their own choosing, explaining that one grade would be given for style and subject development, another for grammar and punctuation. The student's mark on the theme as a whole would be an average of the two.

I spent a long time grading the papers, carefully considering the content and counting the number of misspelled words, grammatical errors, and mistakes in punctuation.

I was sure I'd been fair to each student. Nevertheless the next day, I did not return the papers until the end of the class period, hoping to avoid the usual flap over who got what. Despite this ploy of mine, my students must have spent a lot of time comparing papers, counting errors, and arguing about the final grades. As they trooped into my classroom the following morning, several students came toward me, asking for explanations.

My first thought was to go through every single theme—even if this filled the entire class period. Then, suddenly, I was angry. Why should I have to explain the grades? What right did my students have to challenge my judgment repeatedly?

I told the boys to take their seats. Then, struggling to control my voice, I said: "I've heard quite enough about grades, and I don't want to discuss the matter further. I spent a great deal of time on your papers and you will have to accept the grade you have without any more discussion."

With that, I told the class to open their books and proceeded to go on with the day's lesson. There were some murmurs of disapproval, but nobody said anything loud enough for me to hear.

Where did I go wrong in handling this bright class? Or wasn't I actually to blame for what happened? How would a more experienced teacher have handled this class?

Consultants' Comments

The teacher asks, "Where did I go wrong in handling this bright class?" The question itself is an admission that he *did* go wrong. My first reaction is to agree.

The teacher's initial mistake was in grading the papers with percentage scores instead of just marking them A, A-, B+, B, and so on. I do not believe that any essay question or theme can be graded so accurately as to assign percentage figures to it.

However, since the teacher rated each paper with a percentage score and had the reasons necessary to back up these grades, he had no right to say he'd heard enough about grades.

During the teacher's first day in class, he stated how important grades are. So he should have been willing to discuss the subject with his students. I agree that class time should not be used to discuss each individual's grades. However, when the teacher said, "I don't want to discuss the matter further" he should have added "in class." And then he might have explained: "We have other important things to talk about right now, but I know the grade is important to each one of you. I will be glad to discuss the matter with you after school."

—Albert H. Cranston, *math instructor, East High School, Cheyenne, Wyoming.*

This teacher acted in an understandable but ineffective way. His handling of the situation didn't help his students understand themselves any better or help them to understand their teacher's problem.

The teacher already realized the extreme importance his students attached to grades. He should have tried to help them change their attitude from working solely for grades to learning all they possibly can. Each student needed assistance in trying to understand his potential ability—and in planning and setting goals that would develop this potential instead of just enabling him to get ahead of his classmates.

In addition, the teacher should have tried to help his students understand the difficulty of subjective evaluation. Why didn't he duplicate a theme and let each student grade the same assignment—giving them proper standards for doing so? A subsequent class discussion would point up the difficulty of subjective grading.

The teacher could also try to get across, during a class discussion, the fact that someone must do the grading. Since the teacher is hired to guide the students' learning, grading is part of his responsibility. He might explain that while he doesn't consider his judgment infallible, he always tries to be as fair as possible.

This procedure might not be an instant cure-all. But with time and patience, the teacher might be able to promote a more productive attitude in his classroom.

—Charlene Burton, *counselor, Gadsden (Alabama) High School.*

Demanding that students accept grades without question discourages the inquisitiveness essential to their success as students. In this case, the teacher is responsible for answering the students' questions, clarifying the significance of his grade for each student. Part of the problem might have been avoided in the beginning if the teacher had emphasized that students should strive for their individual betterment through knowledge, rather than competing against each other for grades.

—Kendrick Wronski, *freshman, St. Cloud (Minnesota) State College.*

The Young Conformists

S. Omar Barker

The interesting thing about
college-boy beards,
Now well-nigh approaching the norm,
Is that most of them sprout,
I have little doubt,
From compulsive desire to conform.

IDEA EXCHANGE

TODAY'S EDUCATION *will pay $5 for each item used in "Idea Exchange" that has been prepared and submitted by an NEA member and that has not been published previously in a periodical having state or national distribution. (Please include your home address as well as your school, position, and ZIP Code.)*

Why Wait?

Here is a suggestion for making written examinations more meaningful:

While the hour exam is in progress, I post a copy of it, with the correct answers filled in, outside the classroom. When a student has finished taking the exam, he hands in only the answer sheet. I allow him to keep the questions.

This enables the student to evaluate himself accurately while the subject is still fresh in his mind. Also, he will learn from his mistakes, at least some of the time, the material he failed to learn before the exam.

—Sheldon Gloger, *assistant professor of biology, Hudson Valley Community College, Troy, New York.*

Thought Sheets

A device that I have found useful in getting to know my students better and in learning what their problems, interests, anxieties, or frustrations might be revolves around the use of thought sheets.

The thought sheets are two-part affairs. For part one, I give the students an open-ended sentence that they complete with whatever first comes to their minds. For example, "One thing I like (or dislike) about our school is . . ." or "My best (or worst) quality is . . ." For part two, they write down anything they wish to express a thought about—what they are happy about, are bothered about, are presently thinking about.

Each school day I require a thought sheet from all the students, who normally write them during the last four or five minutes of the period. I ask the students to sign their names, but I assure them that I will keep their remarks confidential.

These thought sheets have helped me to identify several moderately disturbed students that I might otherwise not have noted for some time. And, on the average, it takes me only three or four minutes to read through the batch of 25 thought sheets.

—Harry Willnus, *social studies teacher, Romulus (Michigan) Senior High School.*

Alphabetization

Every year, to help my pupils understand and master the skill of alphabetical filing, when the month of February rolls around, I place the children's regular folders that we have for storing important papers in a gaily decorated valentine box. Then when they bring in valentines for their classmates, they file them in the appropriate folders. The last names are listed first, just as they are in the telephone directory.

—Alice M. Bean, *fourth grade teacher, Burton Elementary School, Rexburg, Idaho.*

A Special Day

To give my math classes a breather from their regular assignments, I devised a special day. On this day I put consecutively numbered stations around the room, one for each student. I explained to the students that I wanted them to number on a sheet of paper from 1 to 28 (the number of stations I had) and then to stand by any one of the stations.

Each station had a number and a problem, so the student put the answer for the station he stood by after the same number on his paper. At the end of a one-minute period, I said, "Rotate." At this time, the students moved one station counterclockwise and immediately started to work on that problem for another one-minute period. Those who finished a problem before the one-minute period was up turned around and faced the center of the room.

Most of the problems related to the station. For example, the problem at the sink station read, "If the faucet were turned on, it would fill a quart jar in 30 seconds. How many quart jars could be filled during this class period (40 minutes)?" At the wastebasket the problem read, "Using the yardstick in the wastebasket, measure the diameter of the basket. Find its radius and circumference." Another station problem read, "Count the number of students in class today. Count the number of desks in this room, excluding the teacher's desk. If five of these students were absent, how many desks would be empty if everyone sat down?"

This change was fun for the students, and the problems were fun to make up. This same technique could be used for other subjects or adapted to other grade levels.

—Diane Springer, *teacher of seventh and eighth grade mathematics, Ashland (Oregon) Junior High School.*

Building Paragraphs

The following is a highly effective method of *showing* children how to write a well-structured paragraph.

Class members choose and thoroughly brainstorm a favorite topic. Then they think of interesting sentences about it. Each child who gives one goes to the front of the room, remembering his sentence word for word. Every time another pupil joins him in line, each individual "rereads" his sentence for review purposes (the key to the method's success).

After they have five or six fairly good sentences, each child repeats his so that the class can select the one that is best for the topic sentence. The topic-sentence pupil then moves to first position. The class selects the second sentence, and the second-sentence pupil takes second position. This procedure is repeated until all sentences are positioned. At this point they may wish to improve sentence structure. If two or three pupils give short sentences that can be combined into one, the teacher helps them do so. The use of vivid words and varying the placement of the subject (at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end) are emphasized.

Next, the children dictate their sentences to a "secretary," who writes them on the board in correct paragraph form. An individual (or the class) spells each word as dictated. After the secretary has written the paragraph on the board, the class discusses format, punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and so on. Finally the class reads the paragraph in unison to clinch the "feeling" of its structure.

When the pupils get this feeling after a few sessions, the teacher might divide them into three or four groups, each of which follows the above procedure. The groups can share their paragraphs with the entire class for discussion and constructive criticism.

Then individuals may write and read their own paragraphs.

—Mamie Shirley Church, *elementary supervisor, Toledo, Ohio, public schools.*

Grandma's Cookie Jar

The thought of sharing and expressing kindness lies behind the idea of Grandma's Cookie Jar.

President Nixon's Comments on the Scranton Report

This article is excerpted from Richard Nixon's letter to William W. Scranton, chairman of the President's Commission on Campus Unrest. The President's comments came after our feature on the report went to press.

□ **Responsibility for maintaining a** peaceful and open climate for learning in an academic community does not rest with the federal government—it rests squarely with the members of that academic community themselves. . . .

As high officials in this administration have already noted, your studies of the history of student protest provide us with a valuable perspective. First, they reflect the complex nature of the causes of student unrest. Secondly, they remind us that student disruption is not a problem confined to this administration, or to this past decade, or even to this society alone. Every free society on earth—to one degree or another—faces similar crises on its campuses.

One point of departure I would draw to your analysis of the "youth culture." I have seen personally thousands, indeed tens of thousands, of young people who do not in the slightest conform to the predominant description of students and young people in this report. I believe your survey corroborates my observation.

Perhaps there is considerable truth in the contention that just as the "youth culture" you describe has adherents in *our* generation, so also, the traditional culture of American life has millions of adherents within the younger generation. . . .

One cannot draw up an indictment of an entire generation—young or old—just as one cannot draw an indictment of one segment or race of our diverse people. History has surely taught us the falseness and injustice of that. . . .

In these times, one cannot often enough emphasize the need for individual responsibility and individual accountability. That is one of the basic underpinnings of a democratic society.

And society cannot abide, cannot accept, the cynical contention of those who absolve themselves of responsibility for disruptive and violent actions—on the grounds that society somehow has not measured up to their ideals.

Responsibility for disruption of a university campus rests squarely on the shoulders of the disrupters—and those among their elders in the faculty and the larger community who encourage or condone disruption.

Students must indeed accept responsibility for presenting valid ideas in a reasonable and persuasive manner. By being self-critical, responsive to legitimate grievances, and ready to change, colleges and universities can remove conditions that give rise to student protest. . . .

Students comprise 4 percent of the national population. They have the right to be heard—both collectively and as individuals.

Yet no single group within a democratic society has a superior right to be heeded; and no single group has the right to use physical coercion, disruption, or violence to achieve its political end or social objectives.

The legitimacy and justice of causes should be judged on forcefulness of the reason and logic and evidence marshalled in its behalf—not on the forcefulness of the tactics employed to advance it. . . .

The task of the Presidency is to respect the opinions of the electorate, to seek the truth, and to lead the nation. Thus, for example, I would have to say that an effort "to convince all Americans of the need to confront candidly the serious and continuing problems of the nation" is a matter far more complex than might at first seem the case.

That complexity begins with the fact that there are widely divergent views within our society as to just what our problems are. The views implicit in the Commission's report range from observations that would doubtless be accepted by a great portion of the nation to conclusions that may be shared by a small minority. This does not make any of them wrong, or right. Nor should the Commission have refrained from expressing them. . . .

Those in opposition to a President's foreign or domestic policies have a right to make that opposition known through every legitimate means in a democratic system. But no minority no matter how united, how vocal, or how articulate, has veto power over a President's decision to do what he believes is right in the nation's interest.

With regard to the setting of national priorities, and the allocation of national resources, the views of students and all citizens, and the suggestions of your Commission are welcome—but final determination in these matters must rightly rest with the elected representatives of all the American people. . . . □

I had noticed that many children had too many cookies, while others had none. I approached the matter in an indirect way through a discussion of the joy of sharing and the unhappiness that comes with selfishness. We decided it would be nice if every child could have a small portion of some "goodie" with his milk at milk break.

We then decorated a very large jar to be called Grandma's Cookie Jar. Now, every morning soon after the bell rings, the children who want to share put something in the jar, which I then close and put out of sight. When it is time for the break, I set the jar beside the milk. As the children pass around to get their milk, they feel free to take *one* item from the cookie jar.

It is a delight to see the pleasure of those who give as well as of those who receive.

—Pansy Davis, *fifth grade teacher, Hurricane (West Virginia) Elementary School.*

Fun with Book Reports

Book reports take on a new dimension when students show a character by dramatizing an episode or episodes from the life of the hero or some other character of their choosing.

Students get a kick out of costuming for and acting out such scenes as Oliver Twist begging for his soup, Holden Caulfield reflecting on his being a catcher in the rye for little children, or Raskolnikov committing the murder with axe in hand.

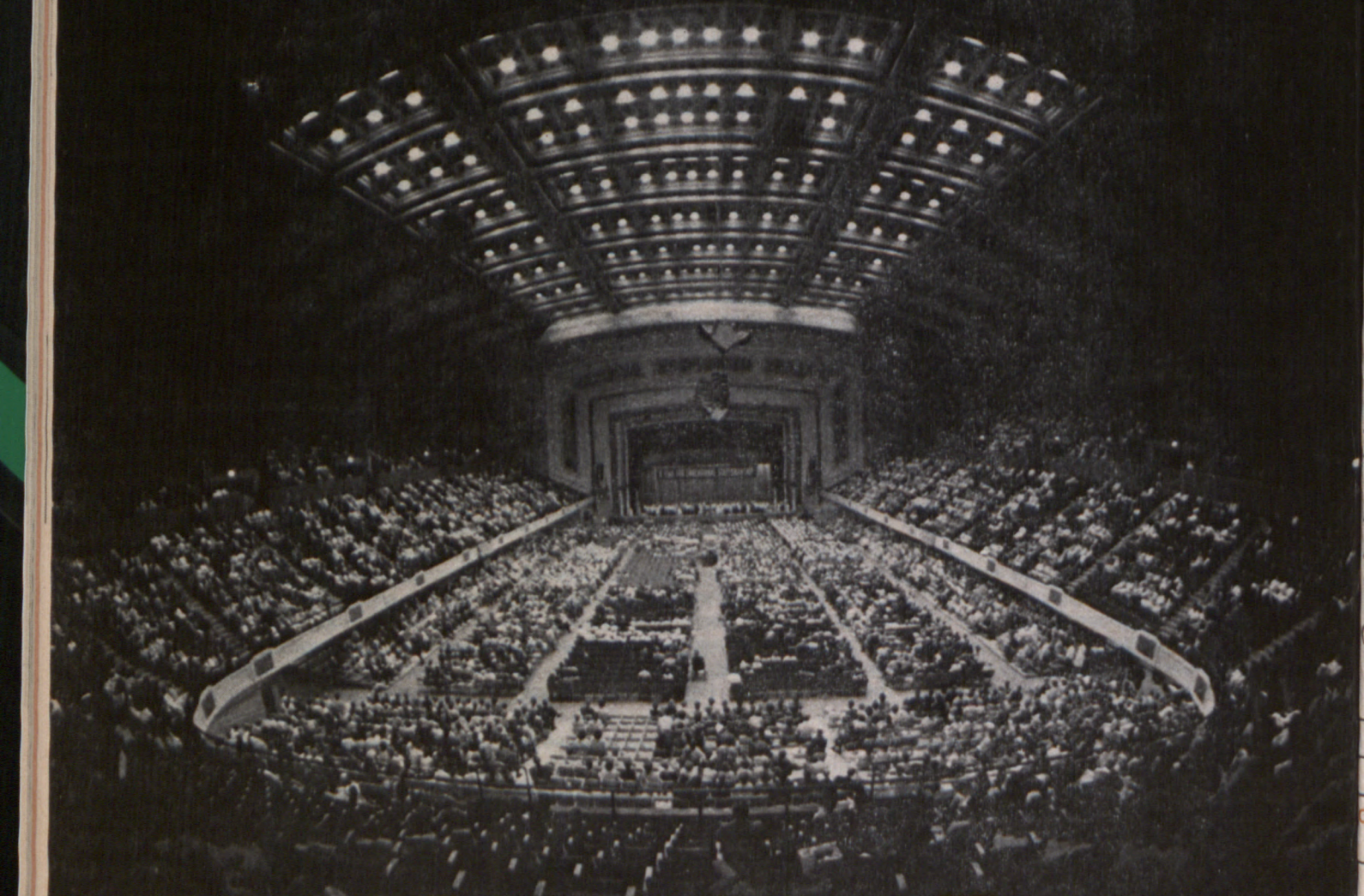
—Madeline Kisner, *head, English Department, Andale (Kansas) High School.*

Helper Charts

Every September I devise a "Helper Chart"—a list of things that need to

(*Continued on page* 71)

Putting it all Together



□ Seen here through the dramatic fish-eye lens of a camera are the almost 7,000 delegates who make up the NEA Representative Assembly.

The delegates chosen to participate in the 1971 meeting will convene in Detroit's Cobo Hall, where, in four action-packed days, the leaders of NEA's local and state associations who make up the Assembly will review the work of the past year, set goals, elect officers, and put the Association's corporate house in order for the next fiscal year.

But this is only part of a whirlwind of intensive discussions and deliberations taking place over a two-week period. Hundreds of meetings are held in other rooms of Cobo Hall and in dozens of Detroit hotels. For example, the largest group of all—Association of Classroom Teachers—will meet prior to the Representative Assembly, as will many others including small, recently established departments like School Nurses, which became an NEA department in 1969.

The NEA convention is a true manifestation of democratic organization: During the months prior to its opening, many important groups, such as the ACT, the National Council of State Education Associations, and the National Council of Urban Education Associations, hold state and local delegate meetings that elicit from their members firm direction for the annual meeting. Then each day while the Assembly is in session, delegates from local associations have the chance to caucus with representatives from their own state.

In addition to settling important matters of business, the convention provides time to visit the tremendous display of commercial exhibits and to participate in social activities, such as Classroom Teachers Night and NEA Friendship Night. □

Application for Sleeping Room Accommodations

Detroit

109th
Annual Convention
Detroit, Michigan
June 26-July 2, 1971

National
Education
Association

If your reservation is being made by your state association, do not file this form.

Most of the rooms in the downtown hotels and motels have already been reserved for state education associations for all or a portion of their delegates and are not available for individuals filing this form. However, the Housing Bureau of the Detroit Convention & Tourist Bureau will make sleeping room reservations for you upon receipt of this reservation blank if all requested information has been provided. The Bureau will make your reservation in the best accommodations still available on a first-come, first-served basis, taking into account the type of accommodation you prefer. Applications should be received before June 4 to ensure receipt of confirmations.

Hotel Or Motel Requested In Order Of Preference:

(See following page for facilities and rates)

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Please reserve the following:

Accommodations Desired	Rate Desired
____ Room(s) with single bed for one person	$____ to $____
____ Room(s) with double bed for two persons	$____ to $____
____ Room(s) with twin beds for two persons	$____ to $____
____ Suite(s), parlor and one bedroom	$____ to $____
____ Other, attach statement	$____ to $____

MAIL TO: NEA Housing Bureau, c/o Detroit Convention & Tourist Bureau, 626 Book Building, Detroit, Mich. 48226. Do not send deposit with this form. Confirmation will be received direct from the hotel/motel.

Arrival Time: Date_____ Hour_____ A.M. P.M.

Departure Time: Date_____ Hour_____ A.M. P.M.

Arriving by: Bus_____ Car_____

Plane_____ Train_____

Please print or type names and addresses of all occupants, including the person making the reservation:

(Bracket those sharing a room)

Name	Street Address	City	State	Zip Code

Confirm reservation to:

Name	Street Address	City	State	Zip Code

NOTES:

- Some hotels/motels require deposits. The amount will be noted on your confirmation from that facility. Do not send checks or money orders with your application.
- Excellent accommodations are available in outlying motels. If you are driving, we recommend this type of accommodation. Rates are about the same as for comparable accommodations in hotels. Ample parking space is available near Cobo Hall.
- Be certain to indicate your arrival time in Detroit. Reservations will be held only until 6 P.M. on the day you indicate you will arrive, unless your hotel is advised of a later time of arrival. Failure to notify the hotel directly of any changes in your arrival time may result in cancellation of your reservation.
- Notify the Housing Bureau of all cancellations up to 15 days before the convention. Within the last 15 days, make cancellations and changes direct with hotels.
- The names and addresses of all persons who are to occupy rooms requested must be listed in the spaces provided on this application form or on an attached sheet completed in the same manner. Avoid duplications.
- Single rooms are limited in number. Please arrange for two persons to share a twin bedded room.

Registration and exhibits open in Cobo Hall, 9 A.M., Saturday, June 26

Last general session, Cobo Hall, Friday night, July 2

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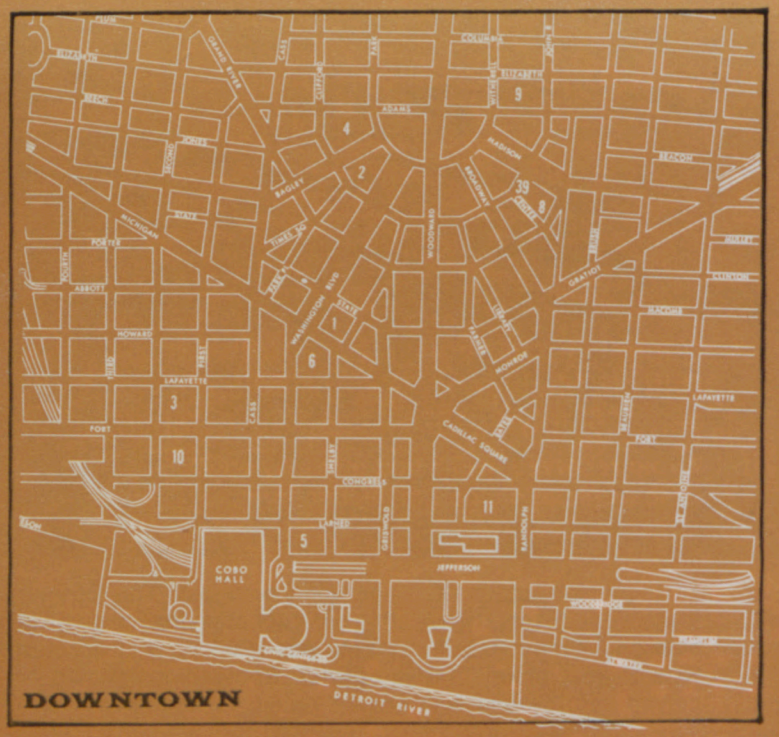

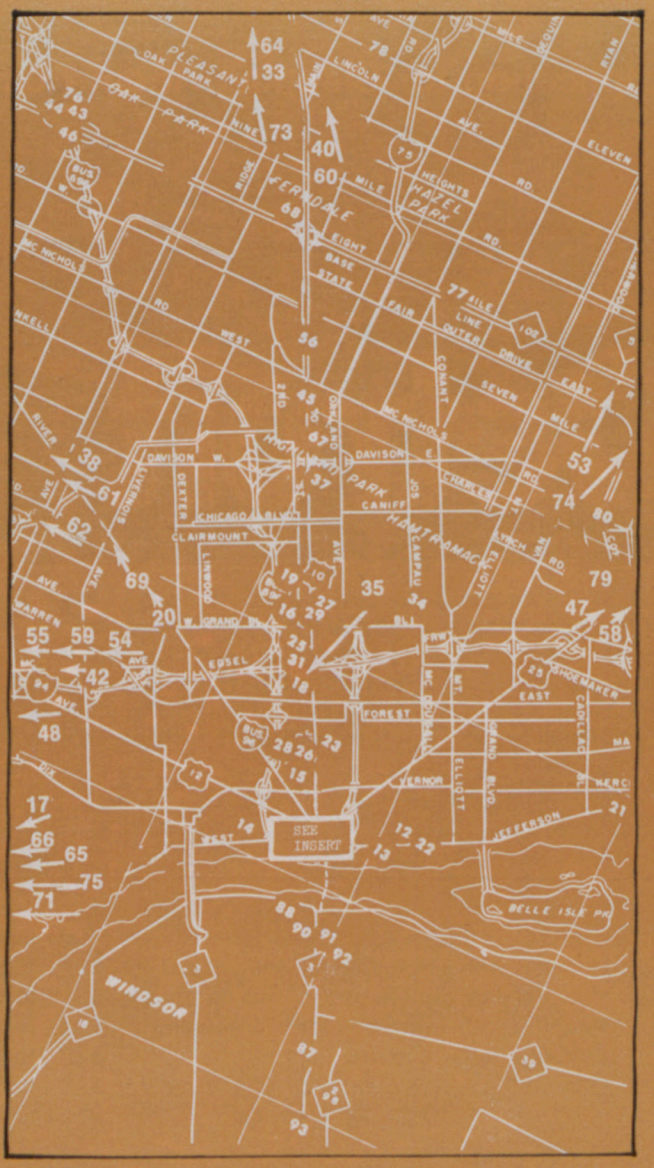

Detroit

109th
Annual Convention
Detroit, Michigan
June 26-July 2, 1971

National
Education
Association

KEY	HOTELS/MOTELS	SINGLES	DOUBLES	TWINS	SUITES
1	Sheraton-Cadillac	$17.00-24.00	$24.00-31.00	$24.00-31.00	$42.00-75.00
2	Detroit Hilton	$13.50-30.00	$20.00-33.00	$20.00-40.50	$45.00-130.00
3	Pick-Fort Shelby	$12.00-19.00	$16.00-24.00	$18.00-25.00	$37.00-60.00
4	Tuller[2]	$10.00-12.00	$12.00-14.00	$14.00-18.00	$32.00
5	Ponchartrain[1]	$17.00-31.00	$22.00-39.00	$24.00-39.00	$55.00-85.00
6	Howard Johnson's—Downtown	$20.00-21.00	$26.00-28.00	$26.00-28.00	$55.00
8	Madison Lenox	———	$ 4.50-10.00	———	
9	YMCA[2]	$ 6.00	$ 8.50		
10	Cadillac House	$13.52-16.64	$18.72	$22.88	
11	Civic Center Motel[1]			$18.00-24.00	
12	Detroit Downtown Travelodge	$12.50-16.00	$14.50-20.00	$16.50-24.00	
13	Shorecrest Motel, Inc.	$13.00-16.00	$16.00-20.00	$18.00-24.00	$35.00-45.00
14	Holiday Inn—Downtown	$14.00-15.00	$18.00-20.00	$19.00-21.00	
15	American Hotel	$10.00	$12.00	$15.00	
16	Howard Johnson's—New Center	$19.00-23.00		$23.00-27.00	
17	Sheraton-Metro Inn	$16.00-18.00	$20.00	$24.00	
18	Belcrest			$16.00-20.00	$22.00-26.00
19	Abington	$12.00	$15.00-18.00	$15.00-18.00	$24.00-36.00
20	McNichols Riviera	$11.00	$13.00	$15.00-19.00	
21	Bali Hi Motel	$13.00	$16.00	$18.00	$25.00
22	Bal Mar	$12.48-14.56	$16.64-19.76	$18.72-22.88	$16.00-19.00
23	Bon Lynn[1]		$14.00	$16.00	
25	Gold Key Inn	$17.00-21.00	$20.00-25.00	$20.00-25.00	$35.00-50.00
26	London Inn	$12.00	$14.00	$16.00-20.00	
27	Pallister	$14.00		$18.00	$40.00
28	Park Plaza Motor Hotel	$13.50-14.50	$15.50-16.50	$15.50-16.50	
29	St. Regis	$25.00-26.00	$28.00-30.00		$42.00-65.00
31	University	$ 9.36-11.44	$11.44	$12.48	
32	Allen Park Motor Lodge	———	$12.00-22.00	———	
33	Birmingham House			$18.00-22.00	
35	Diplomat Motel	$14.00-16.00	$16.00-18.00	$16.00 & up	$25.00-50.00
37	Cavalier	———	$12.00-14.00	———	$13.00-15.00
38	City Motel	———	$11.00-16.00	———	$15.00-18.00
39	Milner	$10.00-14.00	$14.00-18.00		
40	Kingswood Motel	$14.00-16.00	$14.00-18.00	$16.00-18.00	

KEY	HOTELS/MOTELS	SINGLES	DOUBLES	TWINS	SUITES
42	Continental Congress Inn			$19.00-21.00	
43	Cranbrook House	$13.00-15.00	$15.50-18.00	$16.50-19.00	
44	Crestwood Motel	$13.00-16.00		$18.00-19.50	
45	Crown Motel[1]	$12.00	$12.00-14.00	$14.00	$20.00
46	Crystal House	$14.50	$16.50	$18.50	
47	Detroit City Airport	$12.00-15.00	$15.00-17.00	$18.00-24.00	
48	Dearborn Inn	$16.00-19.00	$20.00-24.00	$20.00-24.00	$45.00
53	Executive Inn	$11.00-17.00	$12.00-19.00		$35.00-45.00
54	Quality Fairlane Inn	$15.50	$19.50	$21.00	
55	Falcon Inn	$11.00-14.00	$13.00-16.00	$16.00-17.00	
56	Fontaine[1]	$10.00-12.00	$12.00-14.00	$14.00	$20.00
58	Holiday Inn of Harper	$15.00-15.50	$19.50-20.50	$21.00-22.00	
59	Holiday Inn of Dearborn	$13.50 & up	$17.00 & up	$18.00 & up	$20.00-30.00
60	Holiday Motel	$13.00			
61	Hilltop Motel	———	$13.00-14.00	———	$17.00-22.00
62	Hines Park Motor Hotel	$12.00-17.00	$17.68-23.92	$18.50	$35.00
64	Kingsley Inn	$16.00	$22.00	$22.00	
65	Lincoln Inn	$14.00-16.00	$16.00-18.00	$18.00-22.00	
66	Metropolitan Airport	$24.00	$28.00		
67	Monterey	$11.00	$14.00	$16.00	
68	Motorama	———	$12.00-16.00	———	$18.00
69	Mt. Vernon Inn	$14.56	$16.64	$14.56	
71	Presidential Inn	$13.00	$15.00	$15.00-17.00	
73	Sagamore Motor Lodge	$11.50-13.50	$13.00-16.00	$16.00-20.00	
74	Sheraton Motor Inn (Warren)	$15.00	$20.00	$20.00-24.00	$40.00
75	Sheraton Motor Inn (Woodhaven)	$15.00-18.00	$20.00-28.00		
76	Stouffer's Northland Inn	$18.00		$23.00	
77	Suez Motel	$14.00	$16.00-18.00		
78	Uptown	$10.00-13.00	$12.00-14.00	$14.00-18.00	
79	Shorian Motor Inn	$13.52	$15.60		
80	Aero Inn	$13.00	$16.64	$18.20	
87	Elmwood Motor Hotel (Ontario)		$19.00	$19.00	
88	Holiday Inn of Windsor	———	$14.00-18.50	———	$21.00 $22.50
90	Norton Palmer (Ontario)	$ 8.25	$11.00	$13.00-15.50	
91	Seaway Inn (Ontario)	$15.50-17.50	$20.50-23.50	$20.50-23.50	$40.00-48.00
92	Sheraton-Viscount (Ontario)	$12.50-14.50	$15.50-20.00	$17.50-22.00	$30.00-33.00
93	Cadillac Motel	$ 8.00- 9.00	$ 9.00-11.00	$12.00-14.00	

Notes:
1 These facilities also have accommodations for 3, 4, or 5 persons in one room.
2 Dormitory accommodations with community bath facilities.

Negotiations and Beyond

FRANK JACOBSON, BOB LONGINO, LUCILLE SCHOLEFIELD, DON SWIESS, *past presidents, Monterey Bay (California) Teachers Association.*

□ **In 1965, the situation facing the** Monterey Bay Teachers Association (MBTA) was like a play by Pirandello—only instead of characters looking for an author, we had problems looking for solutions and opposing forces looking for something to unite them.

Our problems did seem overwhelming: a newly unified district that had brought together a small and a large district (each with a radically different salary schedule) and two proud associations (each with its own concept of what was important and how success was spelled); and a new law on the books—California's Winton Act—which mandated negotiations between boards of education and teachers associations, including matters related to improvement of instruction.

The first step toward solution of our problems was taken at an association retreat to which administrators and board members were invited. Among the subjects discussed was that of defining the role of the association in curricular and instructional decisions. As a result, the committee concerned with improvement of instruction was enlarged to include one representative from each building in the district. Also established was a district-wide curriculum council that included nine teachers.

In 1963, MBTA's Classroom Teachers Committee had begun a study of teaching loads in our elementary and junior high schools. The Committee persuaded the administration to supply additional teachers at these levels, but always in the face of the school board's warning: "You can't have both a salary increase and a reduction in class size. It's one or the other."

With the advent of the Negotiating Council, however, the association began moving in a new direction—toward a package proposal that would include matters regarding salaries and fringe benefits *and* those related to improvement of instruction.

After surveying its membership, the association established priorities and incorporated them in a package proposal that included both scholarly rationale and documentation. Finally approved by the MBTA membership, the package was then transmitted to the Negotiating Council.

The proposals encompassed a variety of teacher ideas for changing learning conditions and instructional offerings. Among those successfully negotiated in 1967 and 1968 were proposals calling for a comprehensive study of the entire secondary school program. Successful negotiations saw additional teachers added at the elementary and secondary levels—including remedial reading teachers, speech therapists, and school psychologists. And for the first time in the district's history, classroom and noontime aides were hired for elementary and secondary schools.

Budgets for instructional materials were boosted; additional library and audiovisual materials were purchased for elementary classes. Proposals for financial support of curriculum writing and visitations were also negotiated, along with provision for four in-service education days per year.

Despite this progress, the association felt there was not enough effective change in curriculum and classroom instruction. It was then that the MBTA learned of the search by the NEA's Professional Development and Instructional Services for local associations interested in undertaking a pilot project to explore the effective roles that an association can take to improve instruction.

After being designated as a PD&IS project association, MBTA brought NEA and state staff members to the district for a series of workshops to identify top concerns. The first workshop included the leadership of the association, administrators, and board members.

A second workshop involved members of the Representative Council—the association's policy-making body. The consensus at the second workshop was that the entire professional family should engage in a similar attempt to identify concerns and plot the association's attempts to improve instruction. Consequently, a parallel experience for the total staff of the district was planned in the spring of 1970 for two released time, in-service days—one elementary and one secondary, each followed by a Saturday planning workshop.

Also during the spring of 1970 the Classroom Teachers Committee established an ad hoc committee to make recommendations concerning the district's elementary reading program. The board has adopted nearly all of these proposals.

Meanwhile, the concerns identified in the spring pilot project workshops were found to relate to four major areas for exploration and development:

- Better utilization of human resources in the district
- Improvement of communication both within the district and the association and between the association, the district, and the public
- Establishment of an alternative school within the district that would offer a curriculum and methodology different from that of the traditional school
- Establishment of a district decision-making process to involve all levels of the professional staff.

Thus, since 1965, the Monterey Bay Teachers Association has continued to demonstrate that teachers care about more than just salaries. And with the help of state and national organizations, the association has proved there is strength in unity. □

NEW NEA PUBLICATIONS & AUDIOVISUAL MATERIALS

This listing is designed to keep you informed of the newest professional materials published by the NEA and its affiliates. Please use stock numbers when ordering. N.D. means no discount on quantity orders of the same title.

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Annual Safety Education Review 1970 (#2). 80 pp. $2.25. 244-25128. AAHPER.

Bases for World Understanding and Cooperation: Suggestions for Teaching the Young Child (#3). Joan E. Moyer. Background Paper III of the World Conference on Education Series. 31 pp. $1. 611-17834. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Bibliography of Science Courses of Study and Textbooks, Grades K-12, 1970 (#4). 85 pp. $2. 471-14362. National Science Teachers Association.

Completed Research in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (#5). Volume XII. 292 pp. $3. 248-25126. AAHPER.

Concepts in the Social Studies (#6). Barry K. Beyer and Anthony N. Penna, editors. Bulletin No. 45. Focuses on four key questions: What is a concept? Why teach concepts? How can a concept be taught? What are the implications of concept teaching? 96 pp. $2.25. 498-15248. National Council for the Social Studies.

DGWS Bowling-Fencing-Golf Guide 1971-73 (#7). Includes major articles, official rules, references, and visual aids. 136 pp. $1.25. 243-25136. AAHPER.

DGWS Selected Fencing Articles (#8). 1970 edition. 128 pp. $1.50. 243-25134. AAHPER.

Faculty Salary Schedules in Community-Junior Colleges, 1969-70 (#9). Research Report 1970-R11. 48 pp. $1.25. 435-25454. Research Division.

Framework for Student Involvement (#10). ERS Circular No. 6, 1970. Describes methods to involve students actively in policy making. (An ERS subscription of $80 includes one copy of each circular.) 32 pp. $1.25. 219-21490. Educational Research Service.

Guidelines for Certification of High School Coaches (#11). 40 pp. $2. 241-25138. AAHPER.

Kinesiology Review 1971 (#12). 96 pp. $3. 245-06736. AAHPER.

NEA Addresses and Proceedings, 1970 (#13). Reports the minutes of the NEA Executive Committee, Board of Directors, and San Francisco Representative Assembly. Also contains basic documents and information about the Association. (*NEA life members:* Do not order on this form. Your copy will be sent to you free per your response to a postcard request.) 900 pp. $5. 371-11456. Publications Division.

The Principal and the Reading Program (#14). January 1971 issue of the *National Elementary Principal*. 104 pp. $2. 186-05602. National Association of Elementary School Principals.

Schools Are People: An Anthology of Stories Highlighting the Human Drama of Teaching and Learning (#15). Presents fiction and nonfiction stories about teacher-pupil, teacher-colleague, and teacher-parent relationships that were written by teacher-authors and by well-known writers, such as Stephen Vincent Benét, Art Buchwald, Shirley Jackson, Bel Kaufman, Jean Kerr, Harper Lee, and James A. Michener. Covers elementary through high school level and beyond. Stories from *Today's Education* and other sources. 208 pp. Cloth, $5.25, 381-11958; paper, $3.50, 381-11960. NEA Journal Division.

Vital Views of the Environment (#16). Includes views of Frederick E. Smith, Garrett Hardin, Raymond F. Dasmann, Paul R. Ehrlich, and René Dubos. 39 pp. $1.50. 471-14604. NSTA.

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Publications, NSTA, 1971-72. Lists current publications. 12 pp. NSTA.

Self-Governance for the Teaching Profession: Why? 12 pp. National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.

Take a TIP from NEA. Describes a political consultant service for NEA affiliates. 12 pp. 291-08992. Office of Government Relations and Citizenship.

You're One in a Million (and More). Tells (via a nine-leaflet series) how the NEA serves members through public relations and publications, protection of rights, economic benefits, political action, improved instruction, research, expert help, strengthening locals, and social action. Division of Field Services Information Services Section.

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RESEARCH CLUES

This regular monthly feature of brief research summaries is designed to encourage the teacher to become familiar with significant research in education and to conduct action research of his own.

Although knowledge of research findings in education can be helpful to the teacher in developing his own instructional program, he needs to remember that research studies on a particular topic do not always agree and that no single study or series of studies should be considered to reveal the final answer.

This month's summaries are based on reports contained in two new NEA publications: What Research Says to the Teacher #2, Teaching Elementary School Mathematics *by Herbert F. Spitzer* and What Research Says to the Teacher #11, Reading in the High School *by Roger C. Farr and James L. Laffey.*

How can high school students' reading speed be increased?

Research is clear that there are a number of different ways to increase reading speed. Mechanical pacers and tachistoscopes have been useful, as have special instructional materials used with motivated readers. Summaries of research on speed of reading indicate that no one method for improving reading speed is superior to the others. This suggests that other aspects of speed reading programs should be considered before either time or funds are invested.

Since the findings of research are equivocal, reading teachers and specialists should consider where the resources for a program could be most wisely used. Most educators would agree that speed reading per se is of little value. However, if the purpose is to develop flexible readers (i.e., readers capable of adjusting speed under special circumstances and for special purposes), then the value of such programs is apparent. Speed reading in the interest of flexibility finds useful application in the following tasks, suggested by Roger C. Farr and James L. Laffey of Indiana University: (a) skimming a book's table of contents to get an overall idea of its organization, (b) skimming a table of contents to prepare for a more thorough second reading, (c) skimming a chapter of a book to get an overall idea of its content and organization, (d) skimming a chapter of a text to select topics for intensive study as a review for a test, (e) scanning a paragraph to locate a specific word or concept, (f) scanning a page to locate a specific fact.

Research has shown that exercises such as the above have been successful in developing flexible readers. Essentially the major focus of a program designed to promote flexibility should be on helping the reader acquire appropriate intellectual skills. Among these skills are an ability on the part of the reader (a) to fix clearly in his mind a purpose for the reading, (b) to anticipate how the information he is looking for will be stated, and (c) to anticipate where such information might be located.

Is an exploratory type of instruction that encourages pupils to seek answers fruitful in teaching elementary school math?

Controlled research studies comparing pupil achievement in programs emphasizing an exploratory type of procedure with programs of a nonexploratory nature have given a slight edge to the exploratory programs. When comparisons of outcome are made through other data-gathering means, such as observation of pupil resourcefulness, confidence, and general interest in math, the results have been even more definitely in favor of programs emphasizing exploration and discovery.

TEACHING POSITIONS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

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UNFINISHED STORY

The editors present this story for classroom use as a basis for group discussion, role playing, or creative writing. They also call attention to a booklet, entitled "Unfinished Stories for Use in the Classroom," 381-11766, containing 44 of the most popular unfinished stories, now available for 75¢ (2-9 copies, 10 percent discount; 10 or more copies, 20 percent discount) from the NEA Publications-Sales Section, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

What Should the Class Do?

☐ When school started in September, Miss Hurley had had a twinkle in her eye that meant she was ready for a good laugh, and the projects she introduced were usually interesting to do.

By the time January rolled around, however, Miss Hurley had lost the twinkle, and her voice seemed strangely sharp. Sometimes the smallest things seemed to annoy her.

As the weeks went by, she grew crosser and crosser. She would get so angry so easily that it got to be funny. Some of the children did things they knew they shouldn't do, just to see the explosion.

"Boy, she's changed," somebody said.

"Yeah, from wonderful to witch," answered someone else.

One morning Bobby Edleston, who had previously been acting worse than almost anyone else, was the best-behaved boy in the class. At recess time he whispered to some of his friends, "Hey, you guys, I think we ought to lay off of Miss Hurley. Mom just found out that Miss Hurley's only sister is in the hospital, and she's awfully sick." He went on to tell them that every day, right after school, Miss Hurley drove to the hospital and stayed there with her until late at night. Of course, after she got home, she still had to grade papers and plan the next day's work before she could go to bed.

Bobby's mother had explained that Miss Hurley couldn't just stay out of school until her sister was better, because she had to keep working so that she could pay hospital and doctor bills.

After the other children had heard

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PI-TE

Bobby's story, they started to think of things they had seen that should have made them realize that something was really bothering Miss Hurley. Her eyes often looked red as if she'd been crying, and one morning when Bobby and a friend came into the classroom early they found Miss Hurley with her head down on the desk fast asleep.

Somehow the children had never thought of what Miss Hurley's life was like outside the classroom. They had never even imagined that she or any of the other teachers had problems and worries or aches and pains of their own. But the class knew better now. And as they remembered how upset Miss Hurley had been all these weeks and how they had behaved, they felt bad and wanted somehow to make it up to her. What should Miss Hurley's class do?

Thoughts To Think Aloud:

1. How do you act toward others when you are worried about something? Are you as kind and thoughtful and patient as you are at other times?
2. How is teaching different from many other jobs? Is the teacher's work over once the children leave the classroom?
3. What would Miss Hurley appreciate most? □

NEA SPECIAL SERVICES

In-Hospital Income Plan

□ In the last five years, hospital charges have risen 82 percent. Costs are now $500 to $700 a week! Seven days in a hospital in Nashville will run $600.46; in Seattle, $645.75; and in Atlanta, $655.44. In larger urban centers, such as Los Angeles, New York, and Chicago, costs have climbed well over $100 a day for a hospital room alone. Recently, the largest hospital in Philadelphia raised its rates to $104 daily, and another one in that same city charges $127.50!

Those who feel the pinch the most are people whose insurance pays fixed benefits. Their present static coverage won't meet the increases in hospital costs.

After a period of hospitalization, the patient may also be burdened by extra expenses at home, expenses that may not be covered by his medical insurance. These added expenses might include the cost of nursing help and the rental of equipment and the salary of a housekeeper.

NEA's In-Hospital Income Plan can help solve problems caused by this new "protection gap." The Plan pays $20, $40, or $60 a day for each day of hospitalization. Benefits are paid whether hospitalization is due to accident or illness, and the tax-free payments are sent directly to the insured.

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hospital and the reason for his confinement. Once the claim is approved, the number of days hospitalized is multiplied by the benefit, and the insured receives the full amount. For example, if the insured were hospitalized for 28 days and his benefit were $60, he would receive $1,680 to spend any way he chooses.

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For further details, contact NEA Special Services Division, 1156 15th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20005. □

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(*Continued from page 8*)

SCIENCE TEACHING

Nuclear Power and the Environment. Describes how nuclear reactors affect the environment, and the various research projects and safety measures employed by the U. S. Atomic Energy Commission in this field. One in the *Understanding the Atom* series of educational booklets. 1969. 30 pp. Single copy free to individual requesters. (Classroom quantities are not available.) U. S. Atomic Energy Commission, P. O. Box 62, Oak Ridge, TN 37830.

SOCIAL STUDIES

For Free Men in a Free World. A survey of human rights in the United States as reported by the President's Commission for the Observance of Human Rights Year 1968. Includes the preamble to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. 1969. 250 pp. $1.25. Department of State Publication 8434. Supt. Doc.

France: The Gaullist Era and After. Analysis of General de Gaulle's impact on modern France. April 1969. 64 pp. 85¢. *Headline Series* No. 194. Foreign Policy Assn., 345 East 46th St., New York 10017.

Ideals of Education: Spartan Warrior and Athenian All-Round Man. A collection of documents stating questions that have dominated men's thinking in past ages and the answers they came up with, which may provide guideposts in coping with the problems of education today. One in the series, *The West and the World*. 1970. 36 pp. $1. St. Martin's Press, Inc., 175 Fifth Ave., New York 10010.

Mexican Americans: A Brief Look at Their History. Sketches the major themes and issues encompassed in the historical development of the Mexican American in our society. 1970. 56 pp. 75¢. Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 315 Lexington Ave., New York 10016.

Teaching International Understanding Through Osmosis. Results of the work of the Teacher-to-Teacher Committee of the Michigan Association of Classroom Teachers. Contains materials designed "to imbue within the hearts and minds of . . . students a desire and determination to play a part in the building [of a] peaceful world." Bibliography. 1969. 64 pp. $2. ACT, MEA, Box 673, East Lansing, MI 48823.

SOURCES

Free Loan Film Plus Selected Rental Subjects. 16mm sound motion pictures, filmstrips, and slides. Topics include agriculture; art and music; space, science, and communication. 1969-70. 48 pp. Free. Assn. Films, Inc., 600 Madison Ave., New York 10022.

TEACHER EDUCATION

Homework Helper Program, New York City. An elementary-secondary program. One of the project reports for *It Works, A Series of Successful Compensatory Education Programs*. 1969. 166 pp. 25¢. Cat. No. FS 5.237;37025. Supt. Doc.

Innovation in Education: New Directions for the American School. A statement on national policy by the Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development. Covers the problems of the American schools, as well as their goals, opportunities, costs, and benefits. 1968. 84 pp. $1. Committee for Economic Development, 477 Madison Ave., New York 10022.

The Library Game. Brochure printed in the form of a game to familiarize teachers with the proper use of public libraries. 1969. 4 pp. Single copies free. Send large, stamped (12¢) self-addressed envelope to: Special Services Office, Baltimore County Public Library, 25 West Chesapeake Ave., Towson, MD 21204.

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IDEA EXCHANGE

(*Continued from page 59*)

be done—and give copies to the children. Each child has this responsibility for one year, and newcomers are happy to have an active part in the new classroom. A few of the jobs are: tape cutter, pencil sharpener cleaner, plugger-in of all machines, passer of all notices from the office, and bulletin board dismantler. The children change other jobs (such as washing board, emptying trash, etc.) weekly.

—Susan Rumbley, *team leader, third level, Berkeley Manor Elementary School, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina.*

Problems in Communication

In order to illustrate to my students the importance of giving precise information and directions in their written and oral assignments, I used a blank 35mm film with various geometric designs of increasing complexity.

I had several students leave the room while I projected a design on the screen with a regular filmstrip projector. I asked the students in the room to copy the design on their papers and then write a description of it to present to the ousted students upon their return.

I required the students to read their descriptions exactly as written, and they soon realized that they were not communicating as well as they might.

The class found this exercise rewarding and still likes to do it when time is available.

—Raymond F. Ensher, *teacher of grades 7 and 8, North Fork (California) Union School.*

Chin-the-Syllables

I explain to my pupils that each syllable must contain one vowel sound and that they have to move the chin each time they sound a vowel. Then I ask them to place the back of one hand under the chin and, with the fingers of the other hand, indicate the number of syllables they "feel" as they pronounce a word. If the whole room is playing the chin-the-syllables game, I ask them to close their eyes to help them think for themselves. It really works, and they love it.

—Carolyn W. Walls, *second grade teacher, School 94, Indianapolis.*

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NEA headquarters: 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Telephone: Area Code 202, 833-4000.

1971 NEA Convention: June 26-July 2, Detroit.

American Education Week—October 24-30, 1971. Theme: Help Schools Bridge the Gap.

NEA membership, May 31, 1970: 1,100,155.

NEA officers and headquarters staff: See NEA HANDBOOK pages 10-15, 374-376. NEA resolutions: HANDBOOK, pages 66-88.

NEA units: HANDBOOK, pages 97-142.

NEA departments, national affiliates, and associated organizations: HANDBOOK, pages 143-168.

NEA dues: Active Membership $25 a year. Associate Membership $25. Life or Associate Life Membership $500 each or $55 a year for 10 consecutive years. Retired Membership $2 a year. Educational Secretary Membership $10 a year. Student NEA Membership $2 a year through Student NEA Chapters only. Reserve Membership $12.50 a year.

World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession: Information free from WCOTP, 1330 Mass. Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20005; see HANDBOOK, page 324.

AFTER ALL

□ **Parson Weems' reputation for** veracity may be dubious, but not George Washington's. Every February in elementary classrooms, young George confesses to his father that he cannot tell a lie. Teachers find in the episode a chance to focus attention upon the subject of *truth.*

In a first grade class, children role-play situations in which the teacher hopes they will learn to distinguish between imagination and falsehood, without crushing the former or encouraging the latter.

"A kangaroo knocked on my door last night," asserts one child, "and asked to come in."

"Aw, that's not true," says another. The discussion is on.

How can children learn to deal successfully with everyday social problems?

"What do you think of my new dress?" Ann, a fifth grader, asks three girls who have been assigned the role of friends who do not like the dress.

"It's pretty," answers one.

"Pretty awful," says a second. "That plaid makes you look too fat."

"It's such a beautiful blue. What is that shade called?"

Which friend has blended fact with tact? Which has been brutally frank? Which has told an untruth? How does Ann feel as she hears the three reactions?

Is it possible to give or receive unflattering information without hurt feelings? Are there acceptable phrases on which one can rely when a compliment is expected? (Remember, for example, Winston Churchill's diplomatic "There *is* a baby.") How can one handle his own or someone else's tactlessness ("I don't mind being ugly, do you?")? Can partial truth be more compassionate than whole truth? Is partial truth real truth? The discussion is on.

In a junior high discussion of an emotion-laden political campaign, the history teacher tells Tolstoy's fable of the raven:

The father raven began to carry his young from the island nest to greater safety on the mainland. As he got tired on the long voyage across the ocean, on separate trips with his three sons, he asked each, "When I am old and weak, will you remember what I've done for you and carry me from one place to another?"

The first two, reasoning that their father might let them fall into the sea if they said no, promised, "I will." The father, not believing them, dropped them.

The third son answered in the negative, adding, "When you are old and I am grown, I shall have my own nest and my own young to feed and carry."

"He speaks the truth," thought the father. "I'll use my last remaining strength to carry him to the mainland so he can build his nest and raise his young there."

When students say not what they believe but what they think the teacher wants to hear, who is cheating whom? Might the teacher be as much at fault here as the students? When candidates speak not out of conviction but out of a desire to please constituents, who stands to lose most? The discussion is on.

"What is truth?" a teacher asks his high school English students and turns them loose with books of quotations. They quickly discover that the sages have discovered no one universal truth about truth. The discussion is on, with opinions fortified by quotations:

And ye shall know the truth, and the truth shall make you free. —JESUS. What everybody echoes . . . as true today, may turn out to be falsehood tomorrow, mere smoke of opinion.—THOREAU. Truth is forever truth.—HUNT. Nature has buried truth at the bottom of the sea.—DEMOCRITUS. What is true by lamplight is not always true by sunlight.—JOUBERT.

No human being is constituted to know the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth; and even the best of men must be content with fragments, with partial glimpses, never the full fruition.—OSLER. Pure truth hath no man seen nor e'er shall know.—XENOPHANES. Truth, sir, is a profound sea, and few there be who dare wade deep enough to find out the bottom on't. —FARQUHAR. Truth is the highest thing that man may keep.—CHAUCER. Truth ever lovely—since the world began, the foe of tyrants and the friend of man.—CAMPBELL. The truth, naked and ashamed, is always unpleasant.—HUNEKER. Truth is the pleasantest of sounds.—PLATO. Beauty is truth, truth beauty. —KEATS. Truth is beautiful without doubt, and so are lies.—EMERSON.

It is hard to believe that a man is telling the truth when you know that you would lie if you were in his place.—MENCKEN. Those that think it permissible to tell white lies soon grow color-blind.—O'MALLEY. Every man has a right to utter what he thinks truth, and every other man has a right to knock him down for it.—JOHNSON. As scarce as truth is, the supply has always been in excess of the demand.—BILLINGS. Truth is the most valuable thing we have. Let us economize it.—TWAIN. Truth in spirit, not truth to letter, is the true veracity.—STEVENSON. A lie which is all a lie may be met and fought with outright, but a lie which is part a truth is a harder matter to fight.—TENNYSON.

Men occasionally stumble over the truth, but most of them pick themselves up and hurry off as if nothing had happened.—CHURCHILL. Truth is . . . stranger than fiction.—BYRON. Truth alone wounds.—NAPOLEON. Truth is a jewel which should not be painted over; but it may be set to advantage and shown in a good light.—SANTAYANA.

He who sees the truth, let him proclaim it, without asking who is for it or who is against it.—GEORGE. Truth has rough flavours if we bite it through.—ELIOT. Truths are fruits which should only be plucked when quite ripe.—VOLTAIRE. The truth may stretch but will not break.—CERVANTES. Truth is tough. It will not break, like a bubble, at a touch; nay, you may kick it about all day, like a football, and it will be round and full at evening.—HOLMES. □

This special New Hampshire section of **TODAY'S EDUCATION** was prepared in cooperation with John B. Tucker, editor, New Hampshire Education Association. It is being mailed to the entire NHEA/NEA unified membership.

Volunteers come in all ages and sizes.

An Extra Pair of Hands

JANE VANDERWOLK, *director, School Volunteers Program of the New Hampshire Council for Better Schools, Manchester.*

"You can't buy what a volunteer gives."
—James E. Allen, Jr., former U.S. Commissioner of Education.

□ **School volunteers have been a part of the educa**tional scene in New Hampshire for many years. It was not until the fall of 1968, however, that the New Hampshire Council for Better Schools, whose offices are located at 922 Elm Street in Manchester, designed a statewide project to organize, train, and supervise volunteers in various cities and towns. The Spaulding-Potter Charitable Trusts provided the initial funding for this project, along with a grant from the Education Professions Development Act (EPDA).

The first program organized by the Council was in Nashua, where 25 women offered their services to the elementary schools in January 1969. Now, over a hundred volunteers of all ages and sizes help teachers and students in Nashua.

Programs were added with breathtaking speed in 1969 and 1970. As a result, the School Volunteers Program of the New Hampshire Council for Better Schools now operates in Keene, Manchester, Franklin, Tilton, Amherst, Portsmouth, and Nashua, and is organizing in Lebanon and Goffstown, and at Mascenic Regional.

Why do we need school volunteers? Every community in New Hampshire has untapped resources—its citizens. They have much to offer the most important institutions in the community, our schools. Education today is an expensive commodity, and it's

"Reinforcement" can be fun!

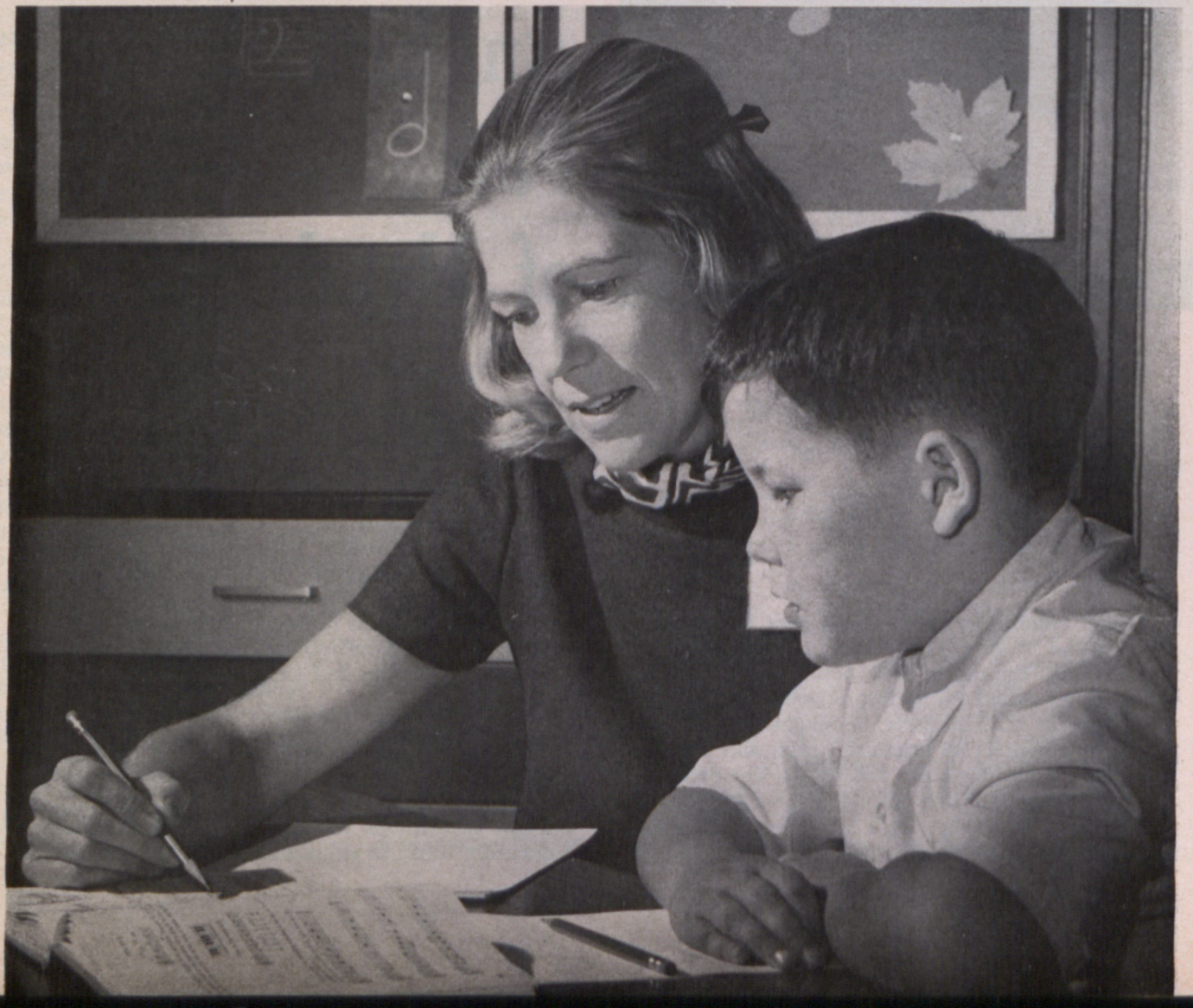
sometimes difficult to provide as many educational specialists as our children need. We often ask teachers to do impossible tasks, expecting them to individualize instruction without any assisting hands, the proper equipment, or adequate physical facilities.

Volunteers can be those "assisting hands." A school volunteer program may utilize the total community as a resource for student learning. Teachers, parents, and everyone in the community can work together as a teaching team.

The typical volunteer is a housewife and mother of school-age children. But volunteers also include both high school and college students, men who work nights or have afternoons off (a Manchester barber has been a faithful Wednesday volunteer), grandmothers and grandfathers—almost anyone who has a willing pair of hands.

Potential volunteers are contacted through school principals, PTA's, and other community groups; all are interviewed by SVP personnel. Publicity is presented in newspapers and over radio and TV. We explain that the only requirement is a love of children and a genuine willingness to help and to be faithful in attend-

A one-to-one relationship makes all the difference.



ance. Students and teachers eagerly await the arrival of a favorite volunteer, and it is essential that they not be disappointed.

What can volunteers do to help teachers and students? They can do almost anything that needs doing!

Has Johnny shut himself in the boys' rest room for an extraordinary length of time? A volunteer may discover the reason: a torn pair of trousers. The problem can be solved with a needle and thread and tender, loving care.

Does Mary need some extra drill (we now say "reinforcement")? A volunteer can provide some work with flash cards and make it fun for Mary—whatever the activity is called.

Is there a bulletin board which needs rearranging? Are there housekeeping chores to do, material to be mimeographed, questions to be answered, a film to be shown, or library work to be done? Whatever the need, a volunteer is there to respond and to help in any way possible. She (or he) is an "extra pair of hands"—never critical, always willing.

Often the volunteer enables the teacher to give more individual attention to a particular student. Or the volunteer himself may be the one providing that irreplaceable one-to-one attention.

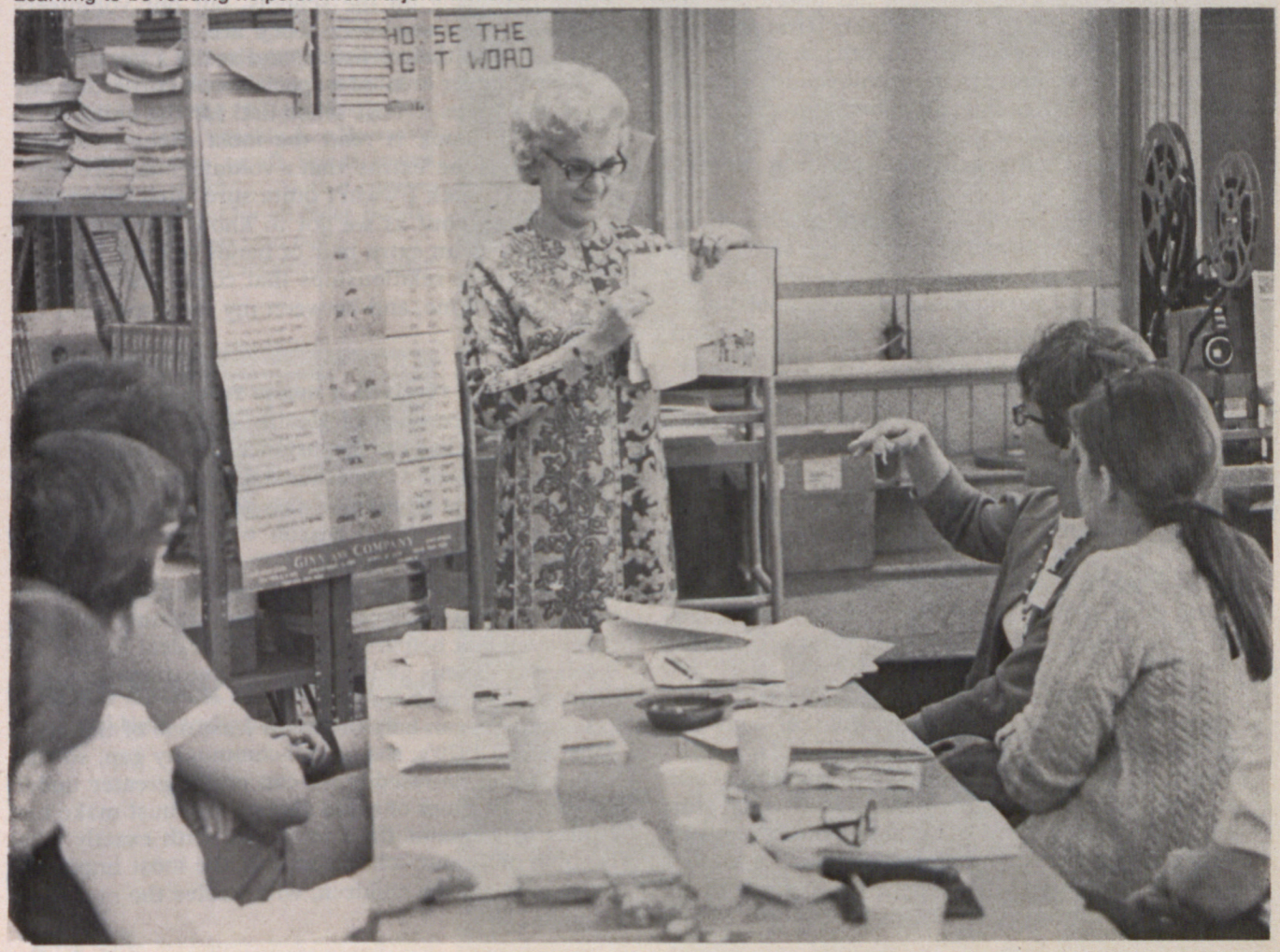
The whole community has a great deal to offer our schools in the area of cultural enrichment. What community does not have citizens who have special skills, or perhaps collections of antique tools, or slides, movies, and artifacts from Mexico, Australia, Spain, Japan, or some other foreign country? Yet the opportunity to draw upon this enrichment material is often ignored by people in the educational field.

Volunteers possessing enrichment material can put on programs themselves. Or the programs may be tape recorded for later use by the teacher or another volunteer.

Volunteers quickly become well informed about school matters. "I never knew that teachers worked so hard or had so many different things to do!" This is a typical comment. Because volunteers are individuals, as students and teachers are, they need to be needed. So they help only in classrooms where the teachers request their assistance.

Surprisingly enough, many parents and other citi- zens know little about what goes on in the schools. They may have attended an occasional "Open House" or been called in for a teacher conference when their children had problems. But the daily work of teachers, students, and principals is something of a mystery.

Learning to be reading helpers. Mrs. Marjorie Benz conducts a class for volunteers and aides in Manchester.



Parents may believe that school is just as it was in their day, though of course this is rarely the case.

We give volunteers an orientation program to acquaint them with school rules and philosophies. The school principal usually participates in these sessions, as well as teachers who have had experience using volunteers. Always the emphasis is on the helping role of a volunteer—the "extra pair of hands."

Understanding of the way children learn and modern approaches to learning are presented at the orientation sessions. Since most volunteers work in elementary schools, it is vital that they understand early childhood problems, especially those in the field of reading.

The School Volunteers Program has developed (in cooperation with reading consultants from Keene, Manchester, Nashua, and Portsmouth) a six-session program to train volunteers in techniques for helping children to read. A *Reading Handbook*, given to each volunteer who takes the course, offers practical materials to be used with individual children or with small groups.

School volunteers work closely with teacher aides, and in some cases both participate in the same training programs. Volunteers, Title I aides, and learning disabilities aides all participated in the School Volunteer Reading Help Program given in Amherst last fall.

What do volunteers say about the program? Here are some typical comments:

- Nashua: "I felt really good when the Bookmobile librarian told me that Jimmy and Mark are two of her 'regulars.' I helped them get library cards two years ago when they were working with me on their reading."
- Manchester: "I have learned so much from Mrs. —— and the children. They always make me feel welcome. There seem to be a thousand things for me to do."
- Portsmouth: "It makes me feel really special when I see Johnny's mother in the supermarket and she says, 'I'm so glad you are helping my son.'"
- Keene: "I hope to be a teacher someday myself. Just seeing what can be done when you give the slow ones some extra attention is a real inspiration to me."
- Franklin: "I never knew before how much a teacher does each day. I feel that if I can help just a little by mimeographing, helping on the playground, or doing anything else she wants me to do, I will help all the children as well."

How do principals and teachers feel about the volunteer program? Here are some typical comments:

- "Mrs. —— has been doing creative writing with her sixth graders for two years. They look forward to her weekly appearance, and they have accomplished a lot."
- "Volunteers have helped tremendously in our adjustment to the new building. They worked on the library during the summer, helped with bulletin board materials during the early weeks of school, and are now an integral part of the reading program."
- "I'll admit that I was leery of having neighborhood people cluttering up the schools, but our volunteers have sold me completely. They are few in number, cooperative in their attitude, and really a great help."
- "My volunteer created a special book corner for our room and keeps a 'best seller list' for the children to show which book is read the most each week. The children love the 'extras' that a volunteer can provide."
- "The first week I wasn't quite sure what to do with my volunteer, but as we got to know each other she really became an extra pair of hands for me. I'm convinced that it's relationships that count—between my volunteer and me, and between my volunteer and the children."

Recently we received a memo from Elliot L. Richardson, U.S. Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, emphasizing the importance of volunteerism in education as well as in other fields. I believe we will see tremendous growth in this area in the next few years, and there is no reason why New Hampshire cannot be in the forefront.

We are discovering that willing, dedicated volunteers, who have received sufficient training to make them confident helpers, can do a great deal to ease the teacher's burdens and enrich the educational environment of our children.

Volunteers can help bridge at least one of the many gaps of the 1970's, the school-community gap, so that with mutual knowledge we can create greater understanding. In times of rapid change, we must make real efforts to acquaint the community with exactly what is going on in our schools so that the most important citizens of all, the children, will receive the maximum benefits. □

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